

LANGUAGE IN INDIA

Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow

Volume 8 : 12 December 2008

ISSN 1930-2940

Managing Editor: M. S. Thirumalai, Ph.D.

Editors: B. Mallikarjun, Ph.D.

Sam Mohanlal, Ph.D.

B. A. Sharada, Ph.D.

A. R. Fatihi, Ph.D.

Lakhan Gusain, Ph.D.

K. Karunakaran, Ph.D.

Jennifer Marie Bayer, Ph.D.

Trends and Spatial Patterns of Crime in India A Case Study of a District in India

**A Doctoral Dissertation Approved for Ph.D.
in Sociology, Annamalai University**

M. Jayamala, Ph.D.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Illustrations

List of Tables

CHAPTER

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Review of Literature
- 3 Methodology
- 4 Area Profile
- 5 Trend of Crime in Coimbatore Region
- 6 Property Offences in Coimbatore Region
- 7 Grave Offences in Coimbatore Region
- 8 Crimes Against Women in Coimbatore Region
- 9 Summary and Conclusion

Bibliography

Appendices

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

- 3.1. Location of the Area of Study
- 3.2. Location of Police Subdivisions and Police Stations in Coimbatore District
- 3.3. Location of Police Stations in Coimbatore City
- 3.4. Location of Police Subdivisions and Police Stations in Erode District
- 3.5. Location of Police Subdivisions and Police Stations in Nilgiris District
- 5.1. Trend of Crime in Coimbatore District
- 5.2. Trend of Crime in Erode District
- 5.3. Trend of Crime in Nilgiris District
- 5.4. Trend of Crime in Coimbatore Region 1993-2002
- 5.5. Spatial Spread of Crime in Coimbatore District
- 5.6. Spatial Spread of Crime in Erode District
- 5.7. Spatial Spread of Crime in Nilgiris District
- 6.1. Thefts Reported in Coimbatore Police Subdivisions
- 6.2. Thefts Reported in Erode Police Subdivisions
- 6.3. Thefts Reported in Nilgiris Police Subdivisions
- 6.4. Burglaries Reported in Coimbatore Police Subdivisions
- 6.5. Burglaries Reported in Erode Police Subdivisions

- 6.6. Burglaries Reported in Nilgiris Police Subdivisions
- 6.7. Property Offences in Coimbatore District
- 6.8. Spatial Spread of Property Offences in Coimbatore District
- 6.9. Property Offences in Erode District
- 6.10. Spatial Spread of Property Offences in Erode District
- 6.11. Property Offences in Nilgiris District
- 6.12. Spatial Spread of Property Offences in Nilgiris District
- 8.1. Dowry Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District
- 8.2. Dowry Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District
- 8.3. Dowry Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions in Nilgiris District
- 8.4. Molestation Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District
- 8.5. Molestation Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District
- 8.6. Rape Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District
- 8.7. Rape Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District
- 8.8. Kidnap/ Abduction Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District
- 8.9. Kidnap/ Abduction Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District

LIST OF TABLES

- 5.1. Trend of Crime in Coimbatore District
- 5.2. Trend of Crime in Erode District
- 5.3. Trend of Crime in Nilgiris District
- 5.4. Spatial Spread of Crime in Coimbatore Region – 2002
- 6.1. Thefts in Coimbatore Region – 2002
- 6.2. Timings of Thefts Reported in Coimbatore Region
- 6.3. Gender of the Accused in Theft Cases
- 6.4. Number of the Accused in Theft Cases
- 6.5. Age Distribution of the Accused in Theft Cases
- 6.6. Types of Property Stolen by Thieves in Coimbatore Region
- 6.7. Burglaries in Coimbatore Region – 2002
- 6.8. Timings of Burglaries Reported in Coimbatore Region
- 6.9. Gender of the Accused in Burglary Cases
- 6.10. Number of the Accused in Burglary Cases
- 6.11. Age Distribution of the Accused in Burglary Cases
- 6.12. Types of Property Stolen by Burglars in Coimbatore Region
- 6.13. Dacoities in Coimbatore Region – 2002
- 6.14. Timings of Dacoities Reported in Coimbatore Region
- 6.15. Number of the Accused in Dacoity Cases
- 6.16. Age Distribution of the Accused in Dacoity Cases
- 6.17. Types of Property looted by Dacoits in Coimbatore Region

- 6.18. Robberies in Coimbatore Region – 2002
- 6.19. Timings of Robberies Reported in Coimbatore Region
- 6.20. Number of the Accused in Robbery Cases
- 6.21. Age Distribution of the Accused in Robbery Cases
- 6.22. Types of Property Looted by Robbers in Coimbatore Region
- 6.23. Property Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District
- 6.24. Property Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District
- 6.25. Property Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Nilgiris District
- 7.1. Murders for Gain in Coimbatore Region – 2002
- 7.2. Timings of Murders for Gain in Coimbatore Region
- 7.3. Number of the Accused in Murder for Gain Cases
- 7.4. Age Distribution of the Accused in Murder for Gain Cases
- 7.5. Types of Property Gained by Murderers in Coimbatore Region
- 7.6. Murders for Other Purposes in Coimbatore Region – 2002
- 7.7. Number of the Accused in Murder for Other Purpose Cases
- 7.8. Age Distribution of the Accused in Murder for Other Purpose Cases
- 7.9. Gender of the Accused in Murder for Other Purpose Cases
- 8.1. Dowry Offences in Coimbatore Region – 2002
- 8.2. Dowry Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District
- 8.3. Dowry Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District
- 8.4. Dowry Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions in Nilgiris District

- 8.5. Age Distribution of Victims in Reported Dowry Cases
- 8.6. Molestation Offences in Coimbatore Region – 2002
- 8.7. Molestation Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District
- 8.8. Molestation Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District
- 8.9. Age Distribution of Victims in Reported Molestation Cases
- 8.10. Rape Offences in Coimbatore Region – 2002
- 8.11. Rape Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District
- 8.12. Rape Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District
- 8.13. Age Distribution of Victims in Reported Rape Cases
- 8.14. Kidnap/ Abduction Offences in Coimbatore Region – 2002
- 8.15. Kidnap/ Abduction Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District
- 8.16. Kidnap/ Abduction Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District
- 8.17. Age Distribution of Victims in Reported Kidnap/ Abduction Cases

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Crime is the violation of the rules and regulations enforced by the society from time to time for which definite punishment is prescribed by law.

Members in every society are expected to act according to its established norms and laws. But when an individual finds it difficult or impossible to satisfy his wants and desires in a direct and socially accepted manner, he encounters the alternative of renouncing his motive or attempting to find a substitute satisfaction. When good solutions are not available, he engages himself in anti-social behaviour of criminal nature.

Concept of Crime

According to Paul Tappan, “crime is an intentional act or omission in violation of criminal law (statutory and case law) committed without defense or justification, and sanctioned by the state as a felony or misdemeanor”¹. “Crime is an act of violation of law, and criminal is a person who does an act in violation of law”². The concept of crime is an unusually difficult one, since it is difficult to find any definition of crime that does not have a large element of circularity. In general, crimes are committed as events and actions that are prescribed by the criminal law of a particular country.

It is not easy to sociologically define crime particularly because of its implicit roots in the concept of crime. Crime is considered as a deviant behaviour, because it is an act of human against prevailing norms of the society. A crime is further viewed by different parts of the world, even by different sections of the same people differently. Crime by a particular

¹ Paul Tappan, *Crime, Justice and Correction* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1960), p. 10.

² International Encyclopedia of the Social Science, Vol. 3&4, (New York: The Mac Millan Company and The Free Press, 1972), p. 476.

society at a particular period of time may not be so at a different time and for different people.

Generally speaking, in India bigamy is illegal; in a Muslim society, a man can have as many as four wives. In some communist countries, free enterprise is illegal; the free enterprise system is a social tradition in the United States and many American laws reinforce them.

In different countries and societies, there are different conceptions of crime. Social conception varies according to the conventions of the particular society. The definition of crime becomes too wide. A law enacted today may find it against the interest of society after experience. The law will be changed and thus what is criminal today may not be criminal tomorrow. There are so many acts, which are treated as “crime” in the actual sense of the law, but in practice, the criminals are not punished for such acts, because they could interest others. To quote an example, it is said that in France, about one million people flourished in post-war black-marketing. Although black-marketing is a crime in France, according to an eminent French statesman, it was due to black-marketers that the French nation did not starve in those bleak days³.

Men are by nature prone to commit crimes. Emile Durkheim one of the eminent sociologists made an outstanding contribution to the study of crime. He says that a society without crime is an impossibility, for the very

³ Paripurand Varma, *Crime, Criminal and Convict* (Agra: Ram Prasad & Sons, 1963), pp. 6-7.

organization of complex societies prevents total conformity to all social rules by all members. Moreover, crime may even have positive consequences for a social system. The existence of crime strengthens collective sentiments as to what is right and proper. It serves to contrast the unacceptable with the acceptable. The solidarity of the social group is enhanced when conformers unite against law violators and reaffirm their own commitment to the law. Durkheim believes that those who engage in criminal behaviour play a definite role in normal social life, and this role can even be a positive one⁴.

Criminology Vs Sociology

Within all social groups various mechanisms of social control exist to prevent deviant behaviour. The most fundamental mechanism is the individual internalization of social norms, which is the goal of major institutions such as organized education, religion, and family. Indeed the widespread acceptance and support of basic normative standards by members of the society is the most effective force in preventing deviant behaviour. However, since conflict over the content and legitimacy of social rules nearly always exists, societies also establish formal mechanisms of control. Official agencies of the state enact legislation, prohibiting certain types of behaviour, and formal enforcement apparatus is vested with the power to detect and punish violation of these rules. But yet in the society, there is no single synthesized approach to prevent deviant behaviour or

⁴ Emile Durkheim, *The Rules of Sociological Method*, Trans. Sarah Solovay and John H. Mueller (New York: Free Press, 1966), pp. 64-76.

crime as a whole. Although criminology is a long established field of study, crime remains one of the least understood of social problems, particularly in the key contents of causality and prevention.

Criminology in its narrowest sense simply means “the study of crime”. Mannheim defines a little more widely, that it is a body of knowledge regarding crime as a social phenomenon.

It includes within its scope the processes of making laws, and of reacting towards the breaking of laws⁵. Sutherland and Cressey state that there are three principal divisions of criminology: i) the sociology of law, ii) the study of the cause of crime, and iii) penology, which is concerned with the control and treatment of crime⁶. Today the discipline of criminology is characterized by a greater inter-disciplinary approach, more sophisticated research methods, and greater emphasis on empirical research. But criminology is still not generally recognized as a separate discipline, and in most colleges and in many universities it is taught under the umbrella of sociology or criminal justice. In other words, criminology is very much an “applied” science and heavily dependent upon and inter-connected with, other disciplines. Since criminology is so dependent upon, and inter-connected with other disciplines, it is understandable that many

⁵ H. Mannheim, *Comparative Criminology*, Vol. I (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965), pp. 3-7.

⁶ E. Sutherland and D. Cressey, *Principles of Criminology* (Philadelphia: Lippincott) and *Criminology*, 10th Edition, 1978, pp. 25-96.

criminologists have their origins in and major afflictions with, one or other of the major fields.

The relationship of Criminology to Sociology has an inherent logic. Sociology is the study of human society and human social behaviour. This includes rules of behaviour, norms, laws, and social expectations, and hence would logically include a study of the violations of those norms, measures taken to prevent those violations and punishments inflicted – both formally and informally – on offenders. This, in sort, is criminology, or at least becomes criminology when the norms under discussion have been codified in criminal law. Nevertheless, a body of knowledge about crime has been generated from sociology, psychology, political science, and criminal law. Since criminology is an applied subject, many criminologists have been primarily trained in sociology, public administration, political science, psychology or criminal law. And those who study the criminal problems are acutely aware of the numerous pitfalls around, when they try to separate out for detailed examination of social, psychological and physical factors that are considered to be important in the explanation of criminal behaviour.

Crime and Justice System in India

Crime is a major source of social concern today in India. All daily newspapers devote a significant proportion of column inches to reports of murder and theft and accounts of sensational trials. Increases in crime rates

will often be treated as headline news. According to the National Crime Record Bureau, in an hour, about 187 cognizable crimes under the IPC and 443 crimes under the local and special laws are committed. In one day, the police grapples with 832 thefts, 258 riots, 66 robberies and 333 burglaries and 2,991 other criminal offences⁷.

In order to control the criminal activities, there are three institutions that play a role in the enforcement of criminal justice system in India – the Police, the Courts, and the Prisons.

Law enforcement and management of law and order, security, crime prevention and crime detection are essentially enforced and performed by the police authorities. Three major laws, apart from the Police Act, 1861, that govern the role and performance of police are The Indian Penal Code, 1860, The Indian Evidence Act, 1872, and The Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973.

The Indian Penal Code (IPC) identifies the acts of omissions and commissions that constitute the offences, and makes them punishable under this Act. It divides offences into several categories and embodies the substantial criminal law of the country. The Evidence Act is a major law relating to evidence and applies to all judicial court or court martial. Criminal Procedure Code (CrPC) is the major procedural law relating to conduct of investigation, trial, and appeal.

⁷ National Crime Record Bureau, *Crime in India*, New Delhi, 1994.

It provides the mechanism for the punishment of offence against the substantial criminal law. The code also formulates police duties.

Apart from these, to cater to various specific needs, several new laws have been enacted from time to time to meet the growing crime prevention needs. They are broadly categorized as (i) special law (vide section 41 of IPC) which is applicable to a particular subject and (ii) local law (vide section 42 of IPC) which is applicable to particular part of India. Collectively they are known as “Special and Local Laws” (SLL).

The criminal procedure code divides all crimes into two categories – cognizable crimes and non-cognizable crimes. The police deal with the cognizable crimes reported in the country. In such crimes, the police have a direct responsibility to take immediate action on receipt of a complaint or of credible information, visit the scene of the crime, investigate the facts, apprehend the offender, and produce him before a court of law having jurisdiction over the matter. Cognizable crimes are listed both under the IPC as well as under SLL.

Non-cognizable crimes are those where the police cannot arrest a person without a warrant, and so are generally left to be pursued by the

affected parties themselves in the courts. Police do not initiate investigation in non-cognizable crimes except with magisterial permission⁸.

Patterns of Crime

Though the Institutions of police, courts, and prisons of the criminal justice system play a vital role in defending criminal activities, India still faces the patterned criminal activities that would include violations ranging from adultery to abduction, and from alcohols to skyjacking. Criminal offences and the characteristics of lawbreakers are almost as varied as non-criminal offences and law abiders. Hence, the law-violating behaviours reflect patterned interaction or a purposeful social organization centered on criminal activities. These patterns of crime include, organized crime, professional crime, white-collar crime, juvenile crime, gender offence, homicide, and assault.

Organized Crime

Organized crimes are illegal activities carried out as a part of well-designed plan developed by a large organization seeking to maximize its overall profit. The structure of organized crime, outlined by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice in 1967, reflects both the extended family of traditional societies and military

⁸ Arnabkumar Hazra, "Police Reforms and the Enforcement of Criminal Justice in India", Civil Society, *International Seminar on State and the Police in India & France*, (Feb. 2004): 2-3.

organizations⁹. A major characteristic of organized crime is that many of its activities are not predatory (such as robbery which takes from its victims). Instead, organized crime generally seeks to provide the public desired goods and services that cannot be obtained legally (drugs, gambling, prostitution, etc.) For its success, organized crime relies on public demand for illegal services.

The evils caused to society and to the economy by organized crimes are enormous. Through gambling and drug traffic, the lives of many individuals and their families are traumatized. Labour racketeering and infiltration of legitimate business lead to higher price of goods, lower-quality products, forced closing of some businesses, establishment of monopolies, unemployment of workers, misuse of pension and welfare benefit, and higher taxes. Through corruption of public officials, organized crime leads to public cynicism about the honesty of politicians and the democratic process. It also leads to higher taxes and mismanagement of public funds. Organized crime is developing new market place scams, including counterfeiting, consumer credit cards and airline tickets.

Professional Crime

Sutherland describes that the attitudes and behaviour of professional criminals distinguish them from others involved in crime. These people make their careers in larceny, forgery, robbery, confidence

⁹ President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 192.

games or some other illegal activities. They approach their work with the same sort of professional standards as doctors and lawyers. They are usually skillful enough to make crime an economic livelihood and are seldom apprehended because nothing illegal is attempted before either the police or the courts, or both have been paid off to ensure safety¹⁰. Even in the more hazardous occupation of robbery, professional criminals are considerably more prudent than amateurs and are less likely to be caught. Professional criminals take great pains to protect themselves; their social visibility is low, but their total contribution to commit crime remains uncertain.

White-Collar Crime

The most costly and perhaps most frequently occurring white-collar crimes are committed by “respectable” middle-class and upper-class citizens. White-collar crimes are work-related offences committed by people of high status. White-collar crimes are invariably committed by those who are ingenious, clever, shrewd, rich and greedy persons who have developed political clouts. White-collar offences against customers include false advertising, stock manipulation, violations of food and drug laws, release of industrial waste products into public waterways, illegal emissions from industrial smoke stacks and price-fixing agreements. Embezzlement is also a white-collar offence in which an employee fraudulently converts some of the employees’ funds for personal use through altering company records.

¹⁰ Edwin H. Sutherland, *The Professional Thief* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937), pp. 197-215.

This new type of “White-collar crime” adversely affects the health and material welfare of community as a whole and also threatens the entire economic fabric of the country. These criminals, due to their political and financial influence, are able to capture the administrative machine of the state and escape from the clutches of prosecution. So they are sometimes not even traced in the police records. The U.N. Congress on prevention of crime and treatment of offenders predicted in 1970, that the third world would see burgeoning of white-collar crimes in the years to come as a part of developing process¹¹. They rightly predicted that, white-collar crime might be expected to increase both in size and complexity due to the development of industrialisation and economic structure. Further, the evil of the punishment must be made to exceed the advantage of the offence. But in these white-collar crimes, as the existing legal system fails to punish the accused, the criminals are further encouraged to repeat the crime. Hence, in contemporary society, the white-collar crimes show rising trend and widespread corruption.

Juvenile Delinquency

Juvenile crime is usually termed delinquency. The maximum age today for juvenile delinquents according to the Juvenile Justice Act of 1986 is 16 years for boys and 18 years for girls. Different rules apply to offences committed by juveniles and those offences are handled by separate juvenile courts. The violations for which minors can be arrested include not only the

¹¹ Report of the 4th U.N. Congress on *Prevention of Crime and Treatment of Offenders*, 1970.

ones applicable to adults in the same jurisdiction but also a series of vague categories such as habitual vagrancy, sexual promiscuity, truancy, incorrigibility and endangering morals, health or general welfare of the minor. Judges in the juvenile cases are expected to be flexible in judging young people and devising ways of rescuing them from lives of crime. Some judges consistently sentence girls, who are accused of sexual promiscuity, to reform-schools while dismissing cases of boys similarly accused. Others tend to release middle class youngsters to the custody of their families, while sentencing lower class minority young charged with the same offences to correctional institutions.

Armando Morales has classified youth gangs into four types: Criminal, Conflict, Retreatist, and Cult/Occult gangs.

Criminal Gangs: Criminal gangs have a primary goal, that is, material gain through criminal activities such as theft of property from people or premises, extortion, fencing, and drug trafficking.

Conflict Gangs: They engage in violent conflict with individuals of rival groups that invade their neighbourhood or commit acts that they consider degrading or insulting.

Retreatist Gangs: Retreatist gangs focus on getting “high” or “leaded” alcohol, cocaine, marijuana, heroin or other drugs. Individuals tend to join this type of gang to secure continued access to drugs.

Cult/Occult Gangs: They engage in devil or evil worship cult which refers to systematic worshipping of evil or the devil; occult implies keeping something secret or hidden or a belief in supernatural or mysterious powers¹².

In a very real sense, a delinquent gang is created because the needs of youths are not being met by the family, neighbourhood or traditional community institutions (such as the schools, police, recreational and religious institutions). Factors, in the home environments, like poverty, ill-treatment by step parents, alcoholic parents, broken family life, may drive the juvenile to the streets to commit delinquencies. Family attitudes, like overprotection, rejection, lack of love, lack of response from parents, lack of suitable ideal and lack of discipline may also drive a child to criminal activities. Constant quarrels between parents make the home environment intolerable for the child and may lead to delinquent behaviour. Outside home, unhealthy companionship, too much of leisure, and the temptations that city life presents may contribute to delinquency, particularly when the home environment is far from desirable.

Sex Offence

Sex offences include rape, prostitution, dowry death/harassment, molestation, and abduction. It is a highly underreported crime because victims believe that they have nothing to gain and more to lose by making a report. The victims are afraid of social embarrassment, interrogation

¹² Armando Morales, "Urban Gang Violence", in Armando Morales and Bradford W. Sheafor (eds.), *Social work, A Profession of Many Faces*, 5th edition (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1989), pp. 419-421.

by sometimes unsympathetic law enforcement officials, and humiliating public testimony in court about the offence. A danger to society of underreporting rape is that the rapist is less likely to fear apprehension and thus more likely to seek out his victims. Women who were respected and worshipped as incarnation of “Sakti” are today the targets of crimes such as rape. Unfortunately, less attention is given to help the victims cope with their exploitation or to rehabilitating the offenders.

Homicide and Assault

Criminal homicide involves the unlawful killing of one person by another. Criminal assault is the unlawful application of physical force on another person. Most homicides are unintended outcomes of physical assaults. People get into physical fights because they are incensed at others’ actions, and decide to retaliate. Fighting is often an attempt by one or both to save face when challenged or degraded. Homicides frequently are “Crime of Passion”, which occurs during a violent argument or other highly charged emotional situation.

Yet, some homicides are carefully planned and premeditated, including most gangland killings, killings to obtain an inheritance, and mercy killings. Homicides are also associated with robberies during which the victim, the robber or a law enforcement official may be shot. Contrary to public stereotypes, the majority of murders occur between relatives, friends,

and acquaintances. Because of the overt physical damage from assault and homicide, these crimes generate the greatest alarm among people.

Salient Factors of Crime

Man is not inherently guilty. Nobody is born criminal from the womb of his or her mother. The circumstances and the environments or the economic conditions may force any one to commit an anti-social act. The problem of crime is not uniform or caused by the same factors. It is true that lack of stable background, faster change, and greater need of adaptability are the social characteristics, and they are the general background against which criminals must be viewed¹³.

Social Factors and Crime

Family structures and relationships, peer-group relations, education, and occupational status are related to social factors of crime. There may be institutional arrangements that facilitate the increase of the probability or even cause of crime. Cloward and Ohlin argued that societal structures, as they now exist, block the opportunity of many individuals to achieve "success". Some individuals, who are identifiable by their socio-economic characteristics, cannot achieve success by means generally accepted by society: they are blocked from legal success and reach for

¹³ Paripurand Varma, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 273-274.

success by criminal means¹⁴. Judith A. Wilks states that most people who commit the ordinary or index crimes come from low socio-economic background. This is particularly true for younger offenders. Many studies on juvenile offenders have concluded that a vast majority of the subjects live in low-income areas¹⁵. There is also another view according to Sutherland that lower class people are simply more likely to be arrested and convicted, whereas middle and upper class often manage to avoid arrest and particularly conviction¹⁶.

Institutional arrangements may also have effects on groups of people and thus on individuals within groups. Turk has argued that the political structure of society divides people into competitive groups and that crime is a product of this competition. Crime becomes a symptom of a struggle between the people in power and those not in powers¹⁷.

Geographical Factors and Crime

Early observers had noted the geographic factors for the crime occurrence. Breckeridge and Abbott published a study showing the geographical distribution of juvenile delinquency cases in the city of

¹⁴ R.A. Cloward and L.E. Ohlin, *Delinquency and Opportunity, A Theory of Delinquent Gangs* (New York: Free Press, 1960), pp. 192-197.

¹⁵ Judith A. Wilks, *Ecological Correlates of Crime and Delinquency*, Task Force Report: Crime and its Impact – An Assessment the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967), pp. 138-156.

¹⁶ Edwin H. Sutherland, *White Collar Crime* (New York: Dryden Press, 1949), pp. 3-13.

¹⁷ A. Turk, *Criminal and Legal Order* (Chicago: Rang – Mentally, 1969), pp. 59-68.

Chicago. They relied upon statistics gathered by the juvenile court for the year 1899 – 1909¹⁸.

For a variety of reasons, Robert H. Gordon observes that cities seem to produce and nurture considerably more crime than rural areas. Suburban crime rates are higher than rural rates but still considerably below urban rates. One reason for the high urban rate is the presence of slum or ghetto areas with their poverty, unemployment and over crowding results with crime¹⁹. Urbanity was supposed to destroy rigid primordial identities and lead to the emergence of a new, open accommodative and pluralistic culture. It was also believed that urban centres would represent scientific rationality, techno-industrial progress and a vibrant civil society filled with an active public sphere and life-affirming cultural institutions. But now urban centres are becoming increasingly insecure, tension ridden, and pathological. Urban-rural differences are the most significant factors in the geographic distribution of crime. For obvious reasons, states with large urban centres usually have higher crime rates than rural states.

Demographic Factors and Crime

Demography is about the population growth and change. It includes age structure of population, fertility and mortality patterns,

¹⁸ Sophonsiba Breckenridge and Edith Abbott, *The Delinquent Child and Home* (New York: Sage – Foundation, 1912), pp. 158-182.

¹⁹ Robert H. Gordon, “Issues in the Ecological Study of Delinquency”, *American Sociological Review*, 36 (Dec. 1967): 927-944.

migration and mobility patterns, and the ethnic composition of society. The relative proportion of males to females in the population, race, age or sex is also linked to actual crime rates. Hasenpunsch has found that the percentage of young males is a good predictor of crime rates in Canada²⁰.

Similarly the influence of the age composition of a population on crime rates has generally shown relationship. Fox conducted a more sophisticated study using temporal data in the United States in an attempt to predict crime rates. He found that the proportion of the population (non white) between the age group of eighteen and twenty-one years was significantly related to the violent crime rate, and that the proportion of the population (non-white) between the age group of fourteen and seventeen years was significantly related to the property crime rate. Thus his results support the idea that demographic structure does help to explain temporal changes in crime²¹.

Economic Factors and Crime

The economic determinist, Karl Marx, advocates that private ownership of property results in poverty which distinguishes those who own the means of production from those whom they exploit for economic benefit. The latter turn to criminal as a result of this poverty. Crime is, at least in part, the result of economic conditions. At an individual level, lack of income creates an inability to maintain an adequate standard of living, and

²⁰ B. Hasenpunsch, "The Rise and Fall of Crime in Canada, An Attempt at Criminological Forecasting", *Crime and Justice*, (1978): 108-123.

²¹ J.A. Fox, *Forecasting Crime Data* (Lexington Mass: Lexington Books, 1979), pp. 189-197.

consequently triggers crime as a means to gain income²². Lack of income is often the result of unemployment. Unemployment also creates excess leisure. This excess leisure is often spent in socializing with others in similar circumstances or in committing deviant behaviour. As might be expected, most persons who commit the ordinary or index crimes, come from low socio-economic backgrounds. This is particularly true for younger offenders.

Opportunity Factors and Crime

Crime is not caused by a single factor. Traditionally crime is related to socio economic or socio demographic variables. For a crime to occur, there must be both an individual who wants to commit an offence and an opportunity to commit that offence. Mayhew, *et al.* describe “opportunities that attach to the properties of objects involved in crime” and present four characteristics that help to show how opportunity and crime are related.

The abundance of goods: As more goods enter into circulation, more goods are available to be stolen.

The physical security of goods: As objects are made more secure, they are more difficult to be stolen; conversely, insecure goods may be stolen easily.

²² Karl Marx, *Theories of Surplus Value*, Trans. E. Burns (London: Lawarance and Wisehart, 1954), pp. 201-236.

The level of surveillance: Opportunities for crime are mediated by surveillance; high levels of supervision provide some protection.

The occasion and temptation for crime: For a crime to occur, there must be a moment in time and space when the crime can happen. Insecure cars, even with the keys left in the lock will not create a crime. A person who wants to steal a car must come across the insecure car²³. Therefore crime can be considered in a cultural or social content as well as in a legal content.

Ecology and Crime

Ecology is concerned with systems. The ecological approach describes and analyses the system of interdependence among different elements in the common setting. Human ecology is the inter-relationship of man and his spatial setting. It is concerned not only with the spatial distribution of people and institutions, but also with interactive relationships between individuals and groups and the way these relationships influence or are influenced by, particular spatial patterns and processes. It is concerned with cultural, racial, economic, and other differences in so far as preferences and prejudices associated with these differences serve to bring people socially or spatially together or keep them apart.

²³ P. Mayhew, R.V.G. Clarke, *et al.*, *Crime as Opportunity*, Home Office Research Study, No. 34 (London: HMSO, 1976), pp. 6-7.

McKenzie defines human ecology as the study of the spatial and temporal relations of human beings as affected by the selective, distributive, and accommodative forces of the environment. Human ecology is concerned with the effect of position in physical and social space and in time on human institutions and human behaviour. Spatial relations are seen as critical and were assumed to be the product of competition between individual and groups for advantageous position. It is concerned with social organization in so far as the organization of human activities influences or is influenced by, the spatial distribution of people or of institutions. Above all, it is concerned with the dynamics of the social order in so far as change, either in the structure and functions of institutions or in the patterns of human relationships, brings about ecological changes and vice versa²⁴. While human ecology is concerned with the interrelationships among men in their spatial setting, Noel describes that urban ecology is specifically concerned with these interrelationships as they manifest themselves in the city. Urban ecology includes the study of such external expressions of ecological interrelationships as the distribution of cities or their internal structure and composition²⁵.

The ecological school refers to a group of professors associated with the Department of Sociology at the University of Chicago from 1920 to 1932, hence their other name, Chicago School of Sociology. The professors

²⁴ R.D. McKenzie, *The Ecological Approach to the Study of the Human Community* (Chicago: University Press, 1925), pp. 63-79.

²⁵ Noel P. Gist and Fara, *Urban Society*, Sixth edition (New York: Thomas Y. Growell Company, 1974), pp. 150-151.

included: Small, Thomas, Mead, Park, Burgess, Faris, Qqburn, and Wirth. In addition, Sutherland and Thrasher worked there for a while, and some of the more well-known students were Shaw and Mckay, Everett and Helen, Hughes and Saul Alinsky.

The ecological system has been described as having five elements: population, organization, environment, technology, and social-psychological factors. Ecology is concerned with the distribution and relationship of man to their environment. And the phenomena, human crime, is due to the relationship between man and his physical, social, and cultural environment. Today nobody can deny that knowledge of every individual criminal is necessary to determine the causes of crime. Human nature is immensely complex. Environmental conditions are also immensely complex. Between these two complexities, man's individuality develops or deteriorates. If an individual is unable to adjust himself to society, he is deemed to failure, and a failure of life may turn out to be anything insane, criminal, pervert, introvert, etc.

Sociologists have employed the ecological method to investigate the association of social position and criminal activity by comparing area of a country or zones within a city. Such studies have been conducted since the second half of the twentieth century.

Shaw and McKay's ideas on social disorganisation have developed into Cultural Transmission Theory, which states that traditions of delinquency

are transmitted through successive generations of the same zone in the same way language, roles and attitudes are transmitted. They define social disorganisation as the inability of local communities to realize the common values of their residents or solve commonly experienced problems²⁶. They are concerned about the three D's of poverty: Disease, Deterioration and Demoralization. They have never said that poverty causes crime; instead "poverty areas" tend to have high rates of residential mobility and racial heterogeneity that make it difficult for communities in those areas to avoid becoming socially disorganised. These two population variables (mobility or turnover which impedes informal structure of social control, and heterogeneity which obstructs the quest to work together on common problems) have become the primary causal variables for social disorganisation theories.

The disorganisation theorists have left an enormous legacy in criminology; spawning cultural deviance theories, strain theories, learning theories, and control theories. It could be said that all modern criminological theories can be traced back to social disorganisation theory.

Modern theories in this tradition include Newman's defensible space theory. He writes that flaws in the physical environment serve as attractors or facilitators for crime. He writes mainly about housing projects, and how they seem to be designed to provide easy access with common

²⁶ C. Shaw and H. McKay, *Juvenile Delinquency and Urban Areas* (Chicago: University Press, 1942), 74-82.

entrances and exits for criminals, and also with hiding places and poorly placed windows, which allow easy surveillance by would be criminals²⁷. Cohen and Felson have developed routine activities theory, a theory of victimization, which is to say that it predicts a high rate of potential victims becoming actual victims whenever three things occur in space and time together absence of capable guardians, abundance of motivated offenders, and suitable targets²⁸. Wilson and Kelling's broken windows theory, in circles, has become a classical foundational document for community policing, and has referred to physical signs – an area uncared for, abandoned buildings and automobiles, the accumulation of trash and litter, broken windows and lights, and graffiti (signs of crime or incivilities) – that invite criminal behaviour²⁹.

The dominant theme in twentieth century thinking about the origins of criminal motivation for the different crimes assumes that, forces external to the individual shape criminal behaviour. Sociologists explore crime at three levels within a social cone of resolution. The term “cone of resolution” is used more in sorting through the many different levels at which crime is studied. The possible levels within a cone of resolution are infinite, but they are usually divided into three levels: Micro, Meso, and Macro.

²⁷ O. Newman, *Defensible Space: Crime Prevention through Urban Design* (New York: MacMillan, 1972), pp. 85-92.

²⁸ L. Cohen and M. Felson, “Social Change and Crime Rates”, *American Sociological Review*, **44** (1979): 588-608.

²⁹ J.Q. Wilson and G. Kelling, “Broken Windows: The Police and Neighbourhood Safety”, *Atlantic Monthly*, (Mar. 1982): 29-38.

At the macro level, sociologists have been concerned about analyzing, describing, and accounting for large-scale patterns in the social, temporal, and spatial distributions of crime rates among very large aggregates of people, such as a nation, a province, or a city. At the meso level, sociologists have tried to account for criminal motivation and the patterns of criminal organization within small groups. At the micro level, sociologists have tried to explain the development of individual criminal motivation through the mechanisms of socialization³⁰.

Sociological analyses of crime have ranged up and down the levels of resolution in constructing theories of the origins of criminal motivation. A large number of distinctive schools of thought remain vigorous, each marshalling some supportive evidence and each suffering from the problem of firmly established counter evidence at most levels within the social cone (Macro, Meso, and Micro) of resolution. Many research works and theories are framed, but until now, there is no clear agreement about the origins of criminal motivation. However, with the support of Ecological theories of crime, the present research on “Ecological Study of Crime in Coimbatore Region” focuses on the variation in the incidence of crime on the basis of districts and territorial areas.

³⁰ Paul and Patricia Brantingham, *Patterns in Crime* (London: MacMillan, 1984), pp. 8-10.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In terms of research, the greatest contribution to the field of criminology has been made by the ecologists. Crime is closely related to time and place. A brief historical review is vital to a proper understanding of its modern manifestations. In this chapter, an attempt has been made to review the selected literature, which concentrate on different patterns and trends of crime, studied by various sociologists and criminologists all over the world.

Ecology is the study of symbiotic relationship between living organisms and their environment. In human ecology, it is man and his environmental interactions. Regarding deviant behaviour and criminality, it is concerned with the offenders and their interaction with the environment. The ecologists attempt to explain crime as a function of social change that occurs along with environmental change. Such studies were abundant at the university of Chicago during 1920s and 1930s, beginning with the Burgess's concentric circle theory, which divided the city into five major zones. Park and Burgess viewed cities consisting of five zones namely, Central Business District (CBD), transition, workingman, residential, and commuter. Each zone gradually invades and dominates the adjacent zones, with an overall growth outward. Their zonal hypothesis is that delinquency is very high in the zone of transition, due to its characteristics of warehouses, pawnshops, cheap

theatres, and restaurants, and a breakdown is the usual institutional methods of social control. Economic occupational forces segregate moreover the population in the city; the poor live in this zone and they represent basically unskilled workers. This economic and occupational segregation often leads to racial and ethnic segregation³¹.

Shaw and Mckay, researchers at the Chicago school, specialized in using official data to make pin maps, spot maps, rate maps, and zone maps. They studied and noticed that the same neighbourhoods in Chicago seemed to have about the same delinquency rates regardless of which ethnic group moved in. They said that “poverty areas” tended to have high rates of residential mobility and racial heterogeneity that made it difficult for communities in those areas to avoid becoming socially disorganised. These two variables declined the effectiveness of neighbourhood that led to higher and higher rates of delinquency³².

Statistics on reported crime over a period of time provides largest source of information about crime and criminals. It provides a large quantity of useful information about the trends of crime. The researcher reviews some of the literatures that show the trends of crime. In addition to that, various literatures on incidence of crime influenced by social, economic, demographic, spatial, geographic factors, etc. have been reviewed by the researcher.

³¹ R. Park and E. Burgess, *Introduction to the Science of Sociology* (Chicago: University Press, 1924).

³² C. Shaw and H. Mckay, *Juvenile Delinquency and Urban Areas* (Chicago: University Press, 1942).

Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), reports that the trend in reported crime in the United States since World War II has been upward. The rates for both violent and property offences have been rising rapidly. In the year 1960, there were approximately 161 violent crimes per 100,000 people. In the year 1980, the violent crime rate increased to 581 crimes per 100,000 people. Property crimes also have increased at a similar large rate. Thus the trend in crimes shows that, with increase in population, crime rate has increased³³.

In analyzing the criminal statistics from Boston, Ferdinand argued that changes in both socio-economic structure and police behaviour brought about the gradual, but steady, decline in major crime. He argued that the gradually rising standard of living experienced by people in Boston during the entire period reduced crime associated with economic distress and social disorganisation. He observed that a decline in the wave of immigration from Europe to Boston corresponded with the decline in criminal arrests, and he attributed this correspondence to the social assimilation of immigrants. He also argued that the police began to ignore common assault thereby greatly reducing known crimes recorded through arrest³⁴.

Local recording-policy changes can produce dramatic shifts towards the downward in the levels of trends in the reported crimes.

³³ Federal Bureau of Investigation, *Crime in the United States* (Washington: Government Printing Office, UCR, 1980).

³⁴ T.N. Ferdinand, "The Criminal Patterns of Boston Since 1949", *American Journal of Sociology*, 73 (1967): 84-89.

Seidman and Couzens, using an interrupted time-series design, analyzed the monthly reports for burglaries and larcenies in Washington D.C. for the period of five years i.e., from July 1967 to June 1971. They concluded that there was a significant decrease in the level of burglary and larceny. This could be traced due to modifications in crime-recording practices, stemming from pressures imposed by a new police chief on his subordinate to “get the crime rate down”³⁵.

Hendelang compared the race of arrested robbery, rape and assault offenders derived from Uniform Crime Report (UCR) data with descriptive racial information about offenders derived from victims descriptions of offenders collected in the 1974 National Crime Survey (NCS). He found that the percentage of offenders classified as “White”, “Black” and “Other” were identical for robbery. For rape, aggravated assault and simple assault, black offenders were over-represented by about ten percentage points in the UCR arrest data compared with the NCS victimization survey. The study shows that for the offence of robbery, police statistics can be used in the confident expectation that a large number of the patterns found in them will be the same as the patterns found in victimization data³⁶.

Kury conducted victimization surveys in West and East Germany. Above the age of fourteen, 7,000 people were questioned about their victimization for five years with regard to eleven offences. These victimization surveys proved that the level of criminality was slightly lower in

³⁵ D. Seidman and M. Couzens, “Getting the Crime Rate Down: Political Pressure and Crime Reporting”, *Law and Society*, **8** (1974): 457-493.

³⁶ M.J. Hendelang, “Race and Involvement in Common Law Personal Crimes”, *American Sociological Review*, **43** (1978): 93-109.

East Germany than in West Germany before the unification. After the unification, criminality has risen in both parts of Germany by roughly the same figure. In eastern Germany, the feeling of solidarity is on the decline; a widespread social disorganisation process or even anomie can nevertheless not be assumed. Much rather, traditional value notions and behavioural patterns continue to be in force, although sensitization for criminality has grown in eastern part of Germany. Satisfaction with police performance is much smaller among the population in the East than among that in the west³⁷.

Seasonal changes that influence the occurrence of crime were studied by Mcpheters and Stronage. They examined the crimes reported in the city of Florida for a total of 144 months. They found seasonal cycle for robbery, burglary, and auto theft, but no seasonal cycle for assault. In particular, they found a strong six-month cycle for burglary, that is, two peak periods each year (one in the summer and one in the winter). This reflects the vulnerability of winter tourists in Florida as well as the usual summer vulnerability of residents³⁸.

Comparative studies are often made on crimes in rural and urban areas. Usually the reported crimes are more frequent in urban areas than in rural areas. Mrkic and Srdjan's study shows that among European countries in the Netherlands, one crime is reported in urban areas for every

³⁷ Kury Helmut, *Criminality and Victimization in East and West-Result of the First Comparative Victimological Study in the Federal Republic of Germany* (Reide: Janeiro, 1991).

³⁸ L.R. Mcpheters and W.B. Stronage, "Spectral Analysis of Reported Crime Data", *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 2 (1974): 329-344.

37 seconds whereas in rural areas, the corresponding period is 117 seconds (almost two minutes). In urban areas of Cyprus, one crime is reported in every three hours, compared to over 11 hours in rural areas. In some countries this difference is even more significant: in Poland, in a four minute period, there are over five reported crimes in urban areas and only one in rural areas. Thus in most of the countries crimes are more frequently reported in urban areas than in rural areas³⁹.

Another study by Robert H. Gordon has found that for a variety of reasons, cities seem to produce and nurture considerably more crimes than rural areas. Suburban crime rates are higher than rural crime rates, but still considerably below urban crime rates. One reason for the high urban crime rates is the presence of slum or ghetto areas with their poverty, unemployment, and overcrowding conditions associated with crime⁴⁰.

Fear of crime is often found in inner-city population. According to Kinsey *et al.*, in the inner cities crime is a social problem, second only to unemployment. It is the problem of the poor, the weak, and the vulnerable. For them, losing the fight against crime is the worst crime of all⁴¹.

Joachin Bule *et al.* carried out an external victimization survey within the framework of the international crime victims survey (ICVS) in

³⁹ Mrkic and Srdjan, *Comparing Crime in Urban and Rural Areas: Problems and an Illustrations*, UN Statistics Division, 1997.

⁴⁰ Robert H. Gordon, "Issues in the Ecological Study of Delinquency", *American Sociological Review*, 36 (1967): 27-44.

⁴¹ R. Kinsey *et al.*, *Losing the Fight Against Crime* (Oxford: Blackwell, 1986).

Mozambique. The survey deals with victimization, that is, the experience of crime as perceived by the population. Data refer to thirteen types of crime, plus corruption and cheating. Most of the crimes experienced by the population are property-related conventional crimes that do not necessarily involve the use of violence. The study reveals that there are large differences between provinces and main cities in overall victimization. Crime rates are generally related to the size of the city. Quelimane – although not the largest city in Mozambique – shows the highest crime rates. This was possible due to overcrowding and civil war. In the rural areas, crime is almost 10 per cent lower than in the main cities. The theft of vehicle is higher in the city of Maputo. This city is the only region in the country where vehicles are stolen through armed robberies. The stolen vehicles are sold in the neighbouring countries or dismantled with its parts being resold. Victimization of women was lower in Mozambique than in neighbouring countries. Average levels of victimization were the same in cities and rural areas, but the seriousness of incident was higher in rural areas where the majority of cases involved rapes. Age of the victims showed 19 through 24 which seemed to run the highest risk. Factors in victimization are a risky life style that brings one near potential offenders, and the attractiveness of the offender. The survey concludes that while property crime is more frequent in cities, rates of violent crime are similar in urban and rural areas. Thus it suggests that crime in large cities are opportunity driven and could be prevented through better target protection. In general, crimes that were committed by several

offenders in the own neighbourhood and crimes that involved the use of fire arms are considered the most serious⁴².

Chockalingam in his study on crime victimization survey in four major cities of Tamil Nadu State of India namely, Chennai, Coimbatore, Madurai, and Trichy selected randomly 1500 households as samples. Compared to Chennai city the other three cities are less urbanized. The capital city Chennai mostly comprises higher class, higher middle class and middle class population. The other cities comprise mostly the middle class, and the lower class. He says that there is a significant relationship between victimization of burglary and residential area status. Burglary victims seem to be more in the middle class residential area status respondents (53.66%) and the higher class (31.07%) probably because of the increased possessions at house when compared to the lower class⁴³.

Raghavan observes that crimes in the urban areas are quantitatively different from that of semi-urban and rural areas. Moreover, he also identifies crime prone cities in India. Out of 23 mega-cities, Delhi has the highest share of urban crime, followed by Mumbai and Bangalore. Interestingly, he focused in Tamil Nadu Coimbatore outstripped Chennai⁴⁴.

Identification of hot spot areas i.e., frequent occurrence of crime areas are of great importance for crime control and prevention. Kennedy,

⁴² Joachim Bule, Anna Alvazzi del Frate *et al.*, *Strategic Plan of the Police of the Republic of Mozambique*, Results of Survey on Victimization and Police Performance in United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute, Italy, 2003.

⁴³ K. Chockalingam, "Criminal Victimization in Four Major Cities", *Forum on Crime and Society*, 3 (Dec. 2003): 23-29.

⁴⁴ R.K. Raghavan, "Figures in Crime", *The Hindu*, July, 1999.

Braga, and Piechl observe that Jersey city and Minneapolis in U.S.A. show that place-based strategies that target crime control efforts to hot spot areas result in a significant decrease in reported crime and call for service⁴⁵.

Brantingham and Brantingham in his study about the Burnside gang in Saanich, a suburb of Victoria, British Columbia, has found that residences, schools and meeting places (entertainment locations) are the places of the gang's activities. And the 80 per cent of the gang's delinquent acts occur within this core area⁴⁶.

Ray Jeffery explains that crime is not evenly distributed spatially or temporally. Ecological locations and design of the buildings influence the crime pattern of the city.⁴⁷

Rencek in his study of crime in Cleveland and San Diego of U.S.A, finds that blocks with large populations, high population densities, and many apparent buildings have high rates of crime. Physically large blocks have more crimes than smaller blocks, and high vacancy rates are associated with increased crime in Cleveland but not in San Diego. He also says that environmental effects are more important for property crime than for violent crime. Because of the importance of personal relationship in the occurrence of violent crimes, environmental variables have a greater effect on crime rates in Cleveland than in San Diego. Furthermore, Cleveland has higher rates of crime than San Diego. The "Slum blocks" of Cleveland are

⁴⁵ D. Kennedy, A. Braga and A. Piechl, *Crime Mapping and Crime Prevention*, In D. Weisburd and T. Mckwen (eds.) Monsey (New York: Criminal Justice Press, 1997), pp. 219-262.

⁴⁶ Brantingham and Brantingham, *Environmental Criminology* (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1987), pp. 189-97.

⁴⁷ Ray Jeffery, *Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design* (London: Sage, 1977).

larger in area and population than those in San Diego. This suggests that environmental variables interact with socio-economic and demographic variables in the creation of high crime areas. Roncek concludes that the environmental features of residential areas are important for explaining where crimes occur⁴⁸.

Oscar Newman focuses on the high-rise buildings, which are supposed to record more crimes. He finds that high buildings have more crimes than three storied buildings⁴⁹. However, Sivamurthy in his spatial study infers that burglaries in Chennai city of Tamil Nadu State of India are frequently committed in the high and middle class residential areas. Moreover, the study shows that 80.9 per cent of burglaries are confined to the first floor only. 10 per cent of the total 194 burglaries have taken place in the second floor. The reason shown is that at the ground floor, when the windows are kept open, it becomes easy for the culprits to open the cupboard kept next to the window. This is one of the reasons for high rate of burglary on the ground floor⁵⁰.

Painter studied the effects of street lighting in three neighbourhoods in London, where he found that incidents of victimization and disorder decreased in all three neighbourhoods after the introduction of superior street lighting. This decrease was large in two neighbourhoods

⁴⁸ D. Rencek, "Dangerous Places: Crime and Residential Environment", *Social Forces*, **60** (1981): 77-96.

⁴⁹ Oscar Newman, *Defensible Space: Crime Prevention Through Urban Design* (New York: Macmillan, 1972).

⁵⁰ A. Sivamoorthy, "Urban Design and Burglary", *Indian Journal of Criminology*, **30** (2002): 41-47.

(from 21 to 0 incidents). The author believed that these benefits extended beyond the study area in at least one neighbourhood. Improved street lighting also reduced fear of crime, and improved people's image of the area; increased pedestrian street usage at night decreased fear among the elderly. Street lighting can decrease crime and fear by a) improving visibility, thus deterring potential offenders who worry about being identified; b) encouraging street usage, therefore increasing the number of "eyes on the street", informal surveillance, and "guardians"; and c) improving residents' image of the area, thus psychologically encouraging and improving social control and neighbourhood pride⁵¹.

Perkins, Wandersman *et al.* examined the relationship between the defensible space features of the physical environment and crime. Forty-eight blocks in three New York city neighborhoods were selected. The data consisted of a) assessments of the physical environment; b) a telephone survey of residents' perceptions of block conditions, demographic information and social control; c) a 15 months follow-up survey; and d) police records of major and minor crime complaints. Results varied according to the equation used, but by overall, the authors believed that the objective built and transient physical environment significantly and independently related to street crime and delinquency. The existence of non-residential property (such as schools and stores), wide streets, and low visibility from building interiors to the street significantly increased rates of perceived crime

⁵¹ Painter, "The Impact of Street Lightening in Crime, Fear and Pedestrian Street Use", *Security Journal*, 5 (1994): 116-124.

problems. High residential mobility, large block populations, wide streets, non-residential property, more crime prevention signs, and high rates of reported social control significantly increased rates of official FBI part I crime complaints⁵².

Greenberg and Rohe identified three pairs of high and low-income neighbourhoods in Atlanta. They matched neighbourhoods according to racial composition, economic status, and physical adjacency, and they gathered information on the physical environment (street width, land use, street lighting, parking facilities, etc.) and social characteristics (neighbourhood socialites, informal surveillance and neighbourhood attachment) of each neighbourhood. They made a test between defensible space theory, which focussed on social factor, and opportunity theory, which emphasized the features of physical environment. The author found more support for opportunity theory. They found that physical characteristics distinguished between high-and low-crime neighbourhoods to a much greater extent than did differences in informal social control. Low-crime areas were more isolated from outsiders and contained fewer public activities and parking facilities, thus decreasing the supply of potential offenders to the area⁵³.

Garykleck and Tedchiricos studied the motivation and opportunity effects of unemployment on rates of property crime, they have developed a series of cross-sectional regressions to make use of country-

⁵² D. Perkins, A. Wandersman *et al.*, "The Physical Environment of Street Crime: Defensible Space, Territoriality and Incivilities", *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, **13** (1993): 29-49.

⁵³ S. Greenberg, W. Rohe, "Neighbourhood Design and Crime: A Test of Two Perspective", *Journal of the American Planning Association*, **50** (1984): 48-61.

level data from Florida. Their evidence indicates that neither the supply and value of targets nor the level of poverty have the anticipated mediating affect on the unemployment-crime relationship. Because of the measures of opportunity are inadequate, the direct effect of opportunity on crime is not consistent⁵⁴.

Gandhirajan, Thilagaraj *et al.* studied the criminal gangs in Chennai city in India. A base map for the city on a scale of 1:25000 was first compiled with the details of boundaries of police districts, location of police stations, and the city road network. The Software's Archview Geographic Information System (GIS) 3.1 and PC Arcinfo are used for this purpose. The concentrations of criminal gang activity were calculated per police boundary to give future directions to police departments for the prevention of such gang activity. The study concluded that mapping was a useful research tool for data analysis and visualization of complex data relationships. This preliminary spatial exploration of criminal gangs revealed that using GIS to map criminal gangs was a much more compatible means of crime pattern analysis than current processes because of its geographic referencing capabilities⁵⁵.

Demographic analysis is extremely important in the temporal analysis of crime. Sex as a demographic factor, is a crucial variable in predicting criminality. Brearly found that in the United States in the 1920s

⁵⁴ Garykleck and Tedchiricos, "Unemployment and Property Crime: A Target Specific Assessment of Opportunity and Motivation as Mediating Factors", *Criminology Journal*, **3.40** (Aug. 2002): 649-673.

⁵⁵ C.K. Gandhirajan, R. Thilagaraj *et al.*, "Mapping Criminal Gangs in Chennai City: A GIS Approach", *Indian Journal of Criminology*, **30** (2002): 59-69.

about 90 per cent of all reported murders with known assailants were committed by males⁵⁶.

Cressy and Sutherland with the criminality figures of the different countries found that in India and in Sri Lanka in the 1970s males made up over 95 per cent of convicted offenders, whereas the male share in many western countries was closer to 80 per cent. The female share of criminality has risen slightly in some western countries in the later twentieth century. But this share is still very small when compared to male criminals⁵⁷.

Sampson uses data from the National Crime Victimization Survey, to analyse the hypothesis that high structural density (the percentage of housing units in buildings with five or more units) “impedes environmental social control”, reduces surveillance, and increases opportunities for successful criminal activity. His results indicate that structural density, when controlling for level of urbanization, poverty, age of victim and racial composition, does have a significant effect on victimization. In fact, structural density accounts for more variance in theft and violent crime than both poverty and racial composition combined. Age of victim is the most powerful predictor of violent crime, followed by structural density. The level of urbanization has the strongest effect on theft, followed by structural density. Also “structural density tends to have a greater effect in rural areas than in suburbs or central cities”. He attributes these results to

⁵⁶ Brearly, *Homicide in the United States* (Chapel Hill: Carolina Press, 1969).

⁵⁷ Cressy and Sutherland, *Criminology*, 10th Edition (Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1978).

the already high levels of structural density in cities. Conversely, small variations in structural density in rural areas have much larger effects on crime due to the relative lack of apartment buildings in these areas. Finally, Sampson found that structural density has a greater effect on crime in poor areas, most likely due to an increased amount of guardianship (e.g., doorman, alarm, and security cameras) in high-income areas⁵⁸.

Technological evolution plays a major opportunity factor in influencing the criminal activities. Peter Letkeman studied forty-five bank robbers and burglars in British Columbia. He was able to make useful cluster comparisons about the timing and techniques of safe cracking and bank robbery, about the character of crime as a “moon lighting” occupation, and about the social organization of Canadian criminals. The study provides most of the information criminologists have about “casing” (target selection) and contains important information about how criminals learn criminal skills. It provides useful insights into the importance of urban design and architecture in bank robbery. Robbers are concerned about parking places for getaway cars and have come to rely on the architectural uniformity of modern banks in order to make rapid hits with a minimum of planning⁵⁹.

⁵⁸ R. Sampson, *The Effects of Urbanization and Neighbourhood Characteristics on Criminal Victimization*, In R. Figlio, S. Hakim, G. Rangert (eds.), *Metropolitan Crime Patterns* (New York: Criminal Justice Press, 1986).

⁵⁹ Peter Letkeman, *Crime as Work* (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1973).

Installed steering-wheel locks have reduced the theft opportunity. Mayhew *et al.* examined the mix of “newer” and “older” stolen cars and found that the locks, even at an aggregate level appeared to reduce the risk of theft. In 1969, the year when the locks were introduced in England, cars three years old or less (“new cars” before the locks were introduced) represented almost 21 per cent of all the cars illegally taken in the London metropolitan police area. In 1973, the “new” cars with steering-wheel locks made up only 5.1 per cent of all the cars taken⁶⁰.

Skogan and Maxfield explain that Burglary is a very common offence, even more common than the police statistics shows. A person is guilty of burglary, if he enters any building as a trespasser with intent to commit an offence or having entered the building, he steals any thing, harms any one outside or attempts to do so. Unlike personal predatory and assaultive crimes, burglary threatens the well-to-do and the urban middle class⁶¹.

Katzman in a study of suburban crime found that, for property crime, the characteristics of surrounding neighbourhoods were a better predictor of crime than were the economic characteristics of a neighbourhood’s local population. Furthermore, violent crime was influenced by local poverty more than surrounding economic conditions. He

⁶⁰ P. Mayhew, R.V.G. Clarke *et al.*, *Crime as Opportunity*, Home Office Research Study No. 34 (London: HMSCO, 1976).

⁶¹ W.G. Skogan and M.G. Maxfield, *Coping with Crime Industrial and Neighbourhood Reactions* (London: Sage Publications, 1981).

concluded that, while a neighbourhoods local demographic composition provides a good statistical explanation of violent crime, property crime is better understood in terms of the demographic composition of surrounding neighbourhood. These results are related to differences in criminal mobility that property crime offenders travel greater distances when committing a crime. So surrounding neighbourhood will have a greater effect on local property crime rates⁶².

Raghavan has observed that property-related crime, especially burglary and robbery are traumatic to the victim. Many persons are known to have turned mental wrecks after losing their life-time possessions to a depredator. In case of property-related crimes, more than in the case of physical crime, the average citizen is extremely skeptical of the police response. Complaints of refusal to register cases, tardiness in investigation, and dishonest practices in bringing to record recovered stolen property are common in India nationwide. This negative image unfortunately sticks in spite of the many resounding successes of police in restoring property to its lawful owners. For instance, nearly 40 per cent of about 15,000 motor vehicles stolen all over the country were recorded in 1996.

⁶² M. Katzman, *The Supply of Criminals: A Geo-economic Examination*, In S. Hakin and G. Rengert (eds.) Crime Spillover (Beverly Hills, California: Sage, 1981).

This performance is somewhat heartening in the content of the staggering growth of vehicles on the road⁶³.

Similarly the sources of juvenile delinquency have been analyzed by various researchers. Smith suggests for instance, that in some inner city areas fear of crime has become a 'legitimate' surrogate for racial anxieties. In the same way, juvenile delinquency has, so to speak, moved up the tariff to become the conflated 'crime' that is so feared⁶⁴.

Mitra in his study of juvenile delinquency in West Bergh at macro level in the year 1977 found that, 50% of delinquents belonged to the age group 18-21 yrs. Income-group composition revealed that out of 6617, juveniles, apprehended on various charges, were as many as 4965 persons. Most of the juveniles came from families having income of less than Rs.150 per month. Economically backward people had no other option but to send their children to odd jobs for earning their own livelihood. Generally 3650 persons of the juvenile delinquents had no formal education. And 5808 juveniles were new offenders. This research reveals that children are usually compelled to commit offenders due to subsistence⁶⁵.

Elmer conducted research with regard to the factor, that density of population in urban neighbourhoods had been considered a factor in the

⁶³ R.K. Raghavan, "Analysing Crime", *The Hindu*, Dec. 10, 1998.

⁶⁴ D. Smith, Forward to S. Jones, *Police Women and Equality*, 1986.

⁶⁵ Mitra, *Juvenile Delinquency and Indian Justice System* (Delhi: Deep and Deep Publications, 1988), pp. 85-112.

production of delinquency and crime, the thought being that the incidence was greater in the thickly populated areas than in the sparsely populated areas. But however, he came to the conclusion that it was not the density of population, which was of great significance in juvenile delinquency but rather the transitional zone (slum sections), where the details of the individuals life did not definitely fit into the established group organisations and activities⁶⁶.

Atwood and Shideler stated that the participation in various social groups of 100 delinquent boys from the Indian reformatory and of 100 non-delinquent boys matched for age, colour, and nativity. The results indicated that delinquent boys had a greater degree of group participation than did non-delinquent boys. Apart from the mere gang participation, the study suggested that delinquent boys, by having more social contacts than non-delinquent boys have, were in the position of being at greater risks for getting into trouble and getting caught⁶⁷.

In India, juvenile delinquency is something different in nature as compared to other societies. Chandrasekar stated that in India it was found that urchins were destroying public properties like street bulbs, buses, school property, and so on. Moreover theft was also prevalent among them.

⁶⁶ M.C. Elmer, *Maladjustment of Youth in Relation to Density of Populations*, Proceedings of the American Sociological Society, 1926, p. 140.

⁶⁷ B.S. Atwood and E.H. Shideler, "Social Participation and Juvenile Delinquency", *Journal of Sociology and Social Research*, 34 (1933): 436-41.

Sex offences of juveniles were practically absent in India. And clear-cut gang activities were not very common in our country⁶⁸.

In a study of 50 waifs (forsaken children) in the city of Lucknow in India, Srivastava found that out of 50 waifs between the age of 7 to 14 years, 36 were casual gamblers, 10 were habitual, and 4 were non-gamblers. 19 waifs showed certain patterns of delinquency and were senior in age. Some of them resorted to drinking and indulged in other antisocial activities like stealing and quarrelling. Some of them had been caught while doing antisocial activities, but somehow they escaped from the grips of law. Thus, the first symptom for the waif to move towards delinquency was to start gambling and slowly and gradually to become a habitual gambler, a trait of delinquency⁶⁹.

Dutt observed that juvenile delinquency was rapidly becoming a serious menace in India and with the progressive industrialization of many parts of country, which were essentially rural areas until a few years ago. This problem would soon assume the same proportion as in many of the western countries⁷⁰.

Times of India reported that a recent study based on 150 cases referred to juvenile crime court in Delhi, revealed that 79 of them were booked for elopement/rape, 12 juveniles were arrested for

⁶⁸ Chandrasekar, *Juvenile Delinquency in India* (Delhi: Daya Publishing House, 1987), pp. 3-4.

⁶⁹ S.S. Srivastava, *Juvenile Vagrancy*, Institute of Sociology and Human Rights, Lucknow University, 1950.

⁷⁰ G.C. Dutt, Intelligence Bureau: Government of India, Seminar on Social Defence, March 1965, p. 30.

rape/attempt to rape and so on. And the remaining were arrested for property offences. Thus juvenile delinquents increased in India by committing large number of violent crimes⁷¹.

Statistics of National Crime Record Bureau (NCRB) reported that Tamil Nadu in India continued to enforce effectively the special and local laws (SLL) against juvenile offenders and reported highest number of cases (3,891) in the country. Of the total reported juvenile SLL cases in the country, 75.5 per cent were registered in Tamil Nadu⁷².

Homicide is one of the cognizable offences that affect the society. Braithwaite and Braithwaite correlated homicide rates and several measures of income and wealth inequality for twenty one nations. They found intersectoral income inequality a good predictor of homicide rates⁷³.

Andres Villarreal observed the relation between electoral competition and homicidal violence using municipal election results in Mexico. He computed the homicide rates for the years 1990, 1995, and 2000 to coincide with the years for which the control variables were available. The measures of electoral competition were calculated using the results of the most recent municipal election going back up to three years prior to the year from which homicide was drawn. The results provided considerable support

⁷¹ *Times of India*, Delhi, 3 Feb. 2003.

⁷² National Crime Record Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India, New Delhi, 2000.

⁷³ J. Braithwaite and V. Braithwaite, "The Effect of Income Inequality and Social Democracy on Homicide: A Cross National Comparison", *British Journal of Criminology*, 20 (1980): 45-53.

for the hypothesis that in societies characterized by patronage relations, an increase in electoral competition would result in higher rates of homicidal violence. The association between electoral competition and homicide in rural Mexico was significant across municipalities and overtime, as well as after controlling for various standard correlates of violent crime. Consistent with the hypothesis that the relation was due to the disruption of patronage networks, the effect was found only in rural areas⁷⁴.

The illegal economic activities of the upper social classes are not apt to be severely condemned by the society as a whole or by law enforcing bodies. Sutherland observed that there is a significant share of crime in America which is largely ignored. They are criminals in the legal sense; they have broken laws, which indicate them to be serious offenders. They have manipulated the laws to their own advantage and subverted the purpose of the government through corrupt practices. But their behaviour has not resulted in prison sentences or even in social rejection⁷⁵.

Drug use has been increasing in India. Das Gupta explains that in the Indian context, several investigators have mentioned that drug addiction has been spreading alarmingly because of its easy availability, due to India's position as an important transit point for illicit drug traffickers⁷⁶.

⁷⁴ Andres Villarreal, "Political Competition and Violence in Mexico Hierarchical Social Control in Local Patronage Structures", *American Sociological Review*, **67** (2002): 477-498.

⁷⁵ E.H. Sutherland, "White Collar Criminality", *American Sociological Review*, **38** (Feb. 1940): 31-48.

⁷⁶ Das Gupta, *Insurgents Involved in Drug Trafficking* (New Delhi: Link, 1988).

Gupta remarks that drug use has been increasing in India specially in Punjab due to the close relationship between drug smuggling and secessionist movement in Punjab as well as due to the emergence of India as the main transit point for international heroin trade. In a report published by Lokshaba secretariat in 1998, it is found that the excessive amount of non-medical drug smuggling has been increasing in India since the middle of the eighties⁷⁷.

According to a survey report, Mandal found that the total number of heroin addicts in West-Bengal in the reporting year were 1,92,626 persons out of which 1,54,403 persons belonged to the urban areas, among them as many as 68,158 persons were residents of Calcutta. Infact, the city gradually became a den of drug – peddlers. It was alleged that the young boys and girls were habituated in drugs⁷⁸.

Attempts have also been made by several researchers to study the extent of crime against women in India. Pattanaik analysed the incidence of rape along with estimated year population in different states and union territories of India. He showed that Madhya Pradesh had 3518 incidents of rape as against 760.1 lakhs population, which was considered as the highest in the year 1997; followed by Bihar and Uttarpradesh 1457 incidents each, Rajasthan 1255, and Maharastra 1246. But so far as the

⁷⁷ Gupta, "Measures Against Drug Trafficking", *Yojana* (May 1988): 23-24.

⁷⁸ J. Mandal, "A Survey on the Incidence of Drug Addiction in the Rural and Urban Areas of West Bengal with Reference to Demographic Variables", Published by Social Welfare Department, Govt. of West Bengal, 1988.

reported cases are concerned, Mizoram is highest with 6.0 cases followed by Madhya Pradesh, 4.6 and Delhi, 3.5. He observed that maximum number of rape victims belonged to the age group of 16-30 years. Secondly, the rape against children was increasing very fast. Thirdly the maximum number of arrested persons in rape cases belonged to the age group of 16-30 years. Fourthly it was interesting to observe that the victims and offenders belonged to the same age group in 16-30 years. Fifthly the rate of conviction was very low in comparison to the cases reported and taking into consideration the violent nature of the crime⁷⁹.

Nikhil Jaiprakash Gupta reported that in Maharashtra state, number of rape and kidnapping cases have remained around 1300 and 750 respectively per year. Number of cases under dowry death reduced from 471 in 1995 to 395 in 1999. Cases under cruelty by husbands and relatives also showed a slight decline over the years, while cases under Dowry Prohibition Act increased with exception in the year 1999. It was important to note that Maharashtra contributed significantly higher so far as crime against women was concerned in India⁸⁰.

Ram Ahuja studied spatial pattern of 94 rape cases – 56 from Rescue Homes and Women’s organization in three cities of Jaipur, Ajmer and Kota, 21 from court and police records, and 17 from newspapers, between

⁷⁹ J.K. Pattanaik, “Rape in India”, A Multidimensional Perspective”, *Indian Journal of Criminology*, **29** (2001): 71-77.

⁸⁰ Nikhil Jaiprakash Gupta, “Police – Community Collaboration for Solving Women’s Problem – Sindhudurg Model”, *The Indian Police Journal*, **48** (Dec. 2001): 34-39.

1995 and 1997. The study revealed that only 37% cases were committed in the victim's neighbourhood and only 33% cases were committed in the area in close vicinity of the victim's house. It was further found that in 23% cases, the assault was made in the victim's own home, in 17% cases in the offender's home, in 12% cases, in the offender's friend's/relative's/acquaintance's home, and in 48% cases, in some places away from the offender's and the victim's homes such as a hotel, office, temple, truck, dharmashala, school, police station, jungle, etc. Moreover the study revealed that rape was intra-community bound but not a class bound offence⁸¹.

In the 21st century, and indeed since 1991, transformation of criminality to new and particularly diffuse form of criminal violence has been observed. According to Young, crime has become problematic; aggressors are multiple, so the likelihood of becoming a victim has come to seem normal; the causes of crime are broad, and also function according to 'rational choice'. Crime is part of the social normality, since its relationship with society is constitutive, the space for action is both public and private, and it occurs in social spaces – residences, neighbourhoods, plazas or streets – in dispute; the relationship between the aggressors and the victims is complex – they may be strangers or inmates, outsiders or members of the in-group; social control over crime is spread over multiple government agencies and informal actions, including a strong presence of private security; the efficacy

⁸¹ Ram Ahuja, *Violence Against Women* (New Delhi: Rawat Publications, 1998), pp. 74-78.

and efficiency of social control are problematic; and the public's reaction is oriented by an irrational fear of crime and moral panic⁸².

The review of literature indicates the different dimensions of ecological studies on crime. These studies are based on macro, meso and micro level- analysis of crime. The spatial patterns of crime, the temporal changes of crime, particulars of the criminals who engage in criminal activities, the differences in gender and age of criminals, and the different types of crime that are committed in different areas have been studied by various researchers. Studies under conditions particularly South Indian empirical researches are very few. Since Tamil Nadu, one of the law-abiding states in India, presents diversified criminal activity pattern, more researches on spatial incidence of crime are quite necessary.

⁸² J. Young, *The Exclusive Society* (London: Sage, 1999), pp. 46-68.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

(The maps referred to in this chapter are given at the end of the dissertation in Appendix 2.)

In the modern world, the range of social behaviour demanding regulation has increased enormously, as there is simultaneous reaction of old laws in irrational reversion to obscurantism and proliferation of new laws due to compulsions of a rapidly changing society. The early society was static. The society was under control as the structural and functional process coincided with each other. Later the society has become dynamic, which shows continuous and drastic functional changes. The existing social structure could not cope up with rapidly changing functions resulting in structural lag. This encourages deviant behaviour and social disorganization.

Merton has explained the cultural structure, which refers to goals, enjoined by all men, strives by means (Social structure) of normatively regulated or approved forms of behaviour. However, opportunities to reach these goals through socially approved means are unequally distributed. Deviant behaviour ensues when social structure restricts or completely closes a person's access to the approved modes of reaching these goals⁸³. In other words, the disjunction between goals and means causes strains which

⁸³ Merton, *Social Theory and Social Structure* (New York: The Free Press, 1968), pp.131-133.

in turn leads to a weakening of men's commitment to the culturally prescribed goals or institutionalized means that lead to a state of anomie. In modern society, social deviance is part and parcel of normal activities. Only when it goes beyond a tolerable limit, we consider serious and special efforts necessary to control and regulate such social order.

At present, 'crime', the deviant behaviour of human beings is of varying seriousness, and ranges from murder at one end to minor traffic violations at the other. In the recent past, due to technological innovations and revolutionary development in information and technology, the law enforcers as well as law breakers resort to advanced information technology, and a new set of criminal behaviour has emerged, which is named as Cyber Crime. Crime is no longer conventional and when science and technology advances for the benefit of humanity, the wicked men use it also for the destruction of human lives and property. Crime is rapidly increasing and this increase is due to the accelerated urbanization and industrialization followed by large scale migration of rural youth to urban centres in search of employment opportunity; the floating milieu provide an environment to encourage criminal tendencies also.

Ecology is a systematic study of the symbiotic relationship between human beings and their environment. When applied to deviant behaviour, it may throw some light on the pattern of criminal activities in different parts of the society. Ecological study of crime will fix the problem in its right perspective. The basic proposition of ecology holds that different

physical environment supports different species possessing different adaptive techniques including different behavioural systems. To survive, the organism must adapt to its environment. Crime is a behavioural response to a given environmental situation. Crime patterns are aspects of evolving ecological conditions, which in turn reflect changing population distributions, rural and urban developments, industrialization and technical advances. Moreover urban characteristics such as heterogeneity, overcrowding, floating population, anonymity, and touch and go relationship of inhabitants also pave a feasible condition for offenders and offences to go undetected

Coimbatore region (Fig. 3.1) is one of the rapidly developing areas. Its growth is high due to industrial urban development.

In keeping with its rapid industrial growth, its crime rate could also increase. With every dose of complexity in its composition, there could be additional increase in criminality. The region consists of three districts namely, Coimbatore district which has a highest industrial and urban growth; Erode district which has a major portion of rural population; and Nilgiris district which has a beautiful and isolated hilly area known for its tourist attraction. This marked difference between the districts in their density, administrative area, and territorial (city, urban, and rural) variations within the districts made the researcher study the crime and its pattern in this region.

Objectives

1. To describe the trend of crime reported in Coimbatore region over a period of time on the basis of its administrative units, namely districts.
2. To analyze the reported crimes on the basis of districts as well as territorial variations, namely city, urban, and rural areas.
3. To analyze the nature of offences and offenders on the basis of gender, age structure, and time of committing offences as well as place of occurrence.
4. To bring out the variability in criminal behaviour on the basis of territorial areas, types of crimes, and causes of such criminal activities.

Operational Definitions

Urban: Area with the population of above 50,000 people with the police stations exclusively situated in town or the police boundary should cover atleast 75 per cent of the area of urban population.

Rural: Area with the population of less than 50,000 people with the police stations exclusively situated in rural areas or the police boundary should cover atleast 75 per cent of the area of rural population.

City: Area with the population of above 1,00,000 people with the police stations exclusively situated in the heart of the city or the police boundary should cover atleast 75 per cent of the area of the city population.

Crime Trend: Crime trend is a multi-point pattern changes of crime over an extended period of time in a particular area.

Property Offence: Property offence denotes the property stolen either by an individual or a group of persons in the form of theft or robbery or dacoity or burglary.

Grave Offence: Grave offence is the death caused for money or for other purpose either by an individual or a group of persons in the form of assault.

Crime Against Women: Crime against women means the torture given to women by their husbands, members of their family or secondary social sectors which lead to their death or mental depression.

Scope

This research specifically focuses on the trends of crime for a particular period in order to bring out the temporal changes in Coimbatore region. The study about spatial location of crime highlights the crime prone areas in each district of Coimbatore region. Moreover the study about different patterns of crime for a particular area brings out the causative

ecological factors for the crimes committed by criminals in districts as well as in the territorial areas (city, urban and rural). The focus on criminals and their age, sex, property stolen by them, etc. probes into the categories of criminals who are involved in the act of crime.

Research Design

This is a descriptive study based on primary and secondary data. The study is designed to examine and present the ecological factors such as geographical, demographical, urban settings, etc. for the cause of crime. For the study, crimes that are reported during the year 2002 in Coimbatore region have been surveyed. The ten years data of reported crimes and the First Information Report (FIR) review content for the reported cases have been taken up for the study. The collected data cover several dimensions such as age and sex of the offenders, timings of offences, etc.

Universe and Sample Frame

For the purpose of ecological study of crime, the researcher decided to take the Coimbatore region consisting of Coimbatore district, Erode district, and Nilgiris District which formed the universe. The geographical climatic conditions and the density of population vary in each district of Coimbatore region. Hence the researcher decided to do the comparative study about crime in these three districts. Police station areas coming under the Superintendent of Police (rural and urban) and the

Commissioner of Police (city) in these districts (Figures 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 & 3.5) are the specific police enforcement units.

The compiled statistical data recorded for a decade (10 years) have been collected from comparative statements of crime, available in the Crime Record Bureau of each district. In these comparative statements of crimes, the researcher's main focus is on reported cases.

In order to bring out the details of the nature, type and various factors of reported crimes, the researcher decided to refer to the FIR reports for the year 2002 in the police station of each district. With the permission of the Commissioner of Police, the researcher referred to the FIR content in each police station in Coimbatore city. For Coimbatore rural areas, the permission of the Superintendent of Police was obtained to collect the information on different types of crimes that have been reported. Besides the researcher approached the Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors of police stations for further information. Similarly in Erode and Nilgiris Districts also the data have been collected with the permission of the Superintendent of Police and with the help of Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors of police in these districts.

The different types of crimes that occurred have been filed under the Indian Penal Code Sections and under the Local and Special Laws. The detailed review was available for cognizable offences, namely property offences, grave offences and crimes against women. So the

researcher decided to take all these types of reported crimes in Coimbatore region for detailed study.

Tools of Data Collection

In order to analyze the trend of crime over a period of time, the recorded data for a period of ten years have been used by the researcher. For each year with the help of estimated population, the rate of crime has been calculated. To understand the spatial distribution of crime, the First Information Report (FIR) of various police stations of Coimbatore region are the primary source. The detailed ecological map of each district, which is available in the District Crime Record Bureau is the basis for understanding the crime prone areas. In order to analyze the personality profile of criminals, to understand the nature of crime and to enrich the data, depth interviews have been conducted with the various police officials. A few case studies of peculiar criminal activities are also made by the researcher by making extensive field trips to observe and to understand the nature of crime and criminals. Thus secondary data from police stations, content analysis from records, case studies of victims, depth interviews with police officials, and discussions are the tools of data collection. The field work was carried out from September 2003 to February 2004.

Data Analysis

In the process of analysis, simple and cross tables have been constructed. The statistical tables are analyzed in terms of percentages, frequency distribution, and averages. Chi-square test was also used. In tables, figures in parentheses denote percentage. The researcher uses, maps, graphs and charts in studying the spatial distribution of crime in Coimbatore region. Interpretation and discussion are made with appropriate suggestions.

Chapterization

The first chapter describes the concept of crime, crime and justice system in India, different patterns of crime, the factors that influence the causes of crime, and the importance of ecological approach to study about crime and the criminals. The second chapter deals with the review of various literature. In this chapter the research studies on trends of crimes, temporal changes, spatial patterns of the crimes have been reviewed for the better understanding about crime and criminals for the present research. The chapter on methodology discusses the formation of research problem, objectives, scope, and tools used for data collection and data analysis. The chapter on area profile gives a clear picture of the study areas that have been selected for research.

The analysis part of the research starts from the fifth chapter. This chapter deals with the trends and spatial distribution of crime in

Coimbatore region and the temporal pattern of crime between the districts and territorial areas of districts. The sixth chapter discusses the different types of property offences and offenders involved in the act of crime, in districts as well as in territorial areas, and how they have been spatially located on the basis of territorial areas of each district. The seventh chapter on grave offences describes both murders for gain and murders for other purposes and the accused involved in the act of murder. The chapter on crimes against women in Coimbatore region discusses the offences of dowry, rape, molestation and kidnap/abduction. The final chapter is the summary and conclusion of the findings of the research with appropriate suggestions.

CHAPTER 4

AREA PROFILE

In Tamil Nadu state of India, Coimbatore region consists of three districts namely Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris. The area profile of these districts is furnished below.

Coimbatore District

Coimbatore is the third largest city of the state, and it is one of the most industrialized cities in Tamil Nadu. It is known as the textile capital of the South India or the Manchester of the South India. The city is situated on the banks of the river Noyyal. Located in the rain shadow region of the Western ghats, Coimbatore enjoys a very pleasant climate all the year round, aided by the fresh breeze that flows through the 25 kms long Palakkad gap. The rich black soil of the region has contributed to Coimbatore's flourishing agriculture industry and it is in fact the cause for the successful growth of the cotton that serves as a foundation for the establishment of its famous textile industry. The first textile mill came up as far back as 1888 but there are now over hundred mills. The result has been a strong economy and a reputation as one of the greatest industrial cities in South India.

Area and Location

Coimbatore is an inland district in the Southern part of the Peninsula. Coimbatore district lies between 10°10' and 11°3' of the northern latitude and 76°40' and 77°30' of the eastern longitude in the extreme west of Tamil Nadu. It is bounded in the north and east by Erode district. In the west and south the mountain ranges, viz., the western Ghats and Anamalai provide its boundary. In the west, to the south-west of its Headquarters city (Coimbatore), there is a mountain pass in the Western Ghats. Due to the presence of the mountain pass major parts of the district benefit from the South-west monsoon. Apart from its influence on the climatic conditions in the district, the pass which is commonly known as Palghat Gap has an enduring influence on the trade and commerce that are centered in and around Coimbatore city. This opening in the Western ghats provides a direct access to the traders in the West Coast of the city of Coimbatore and vice versa, thus establishing a constant and continuous intercourse in trade with the west coast. Total area of this district is 7470 sq. kms and its headquarters is Coimbatore city.

District Administration

Coimbatore district is one of the biggest districts in Tamil Nadu. It is divided into three Revenue Divisions and nine Taluks consisting of 482 Revenue villages. Out of three Revenue Divisions, Coimbatore

Division is industrially developed, Pollachi is predominantly agricultural and Tirupur partly agricultural and partly rich in hosiery manufacturing.

Local Bodies

The district consists of one corporation, two special grade, one selection grade and one first grade Municipalities. It also has 19 panchayat unions, 59 town panchayats and 389 village panchayats.

Population

Total population of the district according to 2001 census is 42,24,107 persons, comprising 21,56,280 males and 20,67,827 females; urban population is 2789071 persons and rural population is 1435036 persons. Total literacy rate for Coimbatore district is 673.49 persons which comprises of 739.79 literate males and 605.36 literate females. Total workers in this district are 14,31,276 persons (male workers 8,72,493 and female workers 5,58,783 persons). Of the total workers, rural workers are 8,49,788 persons and urban workers (which include city workers also) are 5,81,488 persons. The cultivators are 3,00,443 and agricultural labourers are 4,86,580 person. Household industrial workers are 73,388 persons and other workers are 5,70,865. The marginal workers are about 1,15,837 persons.

Languages and Religions

Main languages spoken in the district are Tamil, Kannada, Malayalam, Telugu, and Urdu. Major religious groups in the district are Hindus, Christians, Muslims, Jains, and Sikhs.

Geography and Physical Features

Soils of the district are mostly of black cotton variety but red loam are also found in Avanashi and Coimbatore taluks. The soil in Coimbatore taluk is found enriched with organic matter from the hill ranges. There are rich tracks of red loam in Palladam and Pollachi taluks. The soil in Pollachi taluk are mostly of sandy loam after mixed with gravel. The red soils around the Anamalais are found to be very rich and fertile.

Coimbatore is perhaps one of the very few districts in the state which can boast of considerable areas of dense forests. More than 20 per cent of the total districts area is under forest. The district has 146905 hectares of reserve forests and together with reserve lands, etc. The total extent is about 154974 hectares. The forests are bound in commercially significant items such as Teak, Sandalwood, Rosewood, Vagai, Pillaimarathu, etc.

Police Administration

The police administration in the district consists of two units i.e., City Police and Rural Police (Figures 3.2 & 3.3), each of them under the

control of the Commissioner of Police and the Superintendent of Police respectively. There are about 15 police stations including 3 all women police stations in Coimbatore city. One CRPF unit is permanently stationed in Coimbatore to assist the city police.

Coimbatore Rural District Police headed by the Superintendent of Police, consists of 54 police stations with 1469 police personnel including 380 Armed Reserved Personnel. Coimbatore Revenue Divisions other than Coimbatore city, Pollachi and Tirupur Divisions are coming under Coimbatore Rural Police. The D.I.G. of police, Coimbatore Range, is functioning in Coimbatore and having jurisdiction over Coimbatore Rural District, Erode and the Nilgiris Districts: Tamil Nadu special police IV Battalion with 1200 men is under the administrative control of one commandant (I.P.S. Officer) based at Kovaipudhur which is on the outskirts of Coimbatore city.

Erode District

Erode District, once a part of Coimbatore, has its history intervened with that of Coimbatore and because of its close linkage with the erstwhile Coimbatore district. It is very difficult to separately deal with the history of Erode region. Together with the area comprised in the Coimbatore district, it formed part of the ancient “Kongu Nadu” history which dates back to Sangam era.

Erode District came into being as a result of the bifurcation of Coimbatore District, through the G.O Ms. No. 1917, Revenue dated 31.8.1979. Bhavani, Dharapuram, Erode, and Satyamangalam taluks were included in Coimbatore district which had a composite character, at the beginning of the century. Of these, Sathyamangalam Taluk was renamed as Gobichettipalayam taluk retaining Sathyamangalam as a sub-taluk. In 1975, Satyamangalam sub-taluk was upgraded into a taluk. In 1979 Perundururai sub-taluk was upgraded into taluk and in 1981 Kangayam sub-taluk was upgraded into taluk. These seven taluks were grouped together to constitute the new district of Erode city.

Area and Location

Erode District lies on the extreme north of Tamil Nadu. It is bounded mostly by Karnataka state and also river Palar covers pretty long distance. To the East lies Namakkal and Karur Districts. Dindigal District is its immediate neighbour to the south and on the west, it has Coimbatore and Nilgiris Districts, as its boundaries. Thus Erode District is essentially a land-locked area having no sea-coast of its own. The Erode District is situated between 10°36' and 11°58' North Latitude and between 76°49' and 77°58' East Longitude.

The region comprised in the district can be portrayed as a long undulating plain gently sloping towards the river Cauvery in the south-east. The three major tributaries of river Cauvery viz., Bhavani, Noyyal and

Amaravathy drain the long stretch of mountains in the north. A part of the eastern boundary of the district is formed by river Cauvery, entering the district from Salem and flowing in a Southernly direction. Total area of the district is 8,162 sq. kms. Headquarters of this district is Erode.

District Administration

Erode District consists of 7 taluks viz., Sathyamangalam, Bhavani, Gobichettipalayam, Perundurai, Erode, Kangayam, and Dharapuram. There are 5 municipalities in the district viz., Sathyamangalam, Bhavani, Gobichettipalayam, Erode, and Dharapuram. There are 59 town Panchayats and 3 village Panchayats declared as census town as per census 2001 and 539 Revenue villages. There are 20 community development blocks in the district.

Population

Total population of the district according to 2001 census is 25,74,067 persons, comprising 13,06,039 males and 12,68,028 females. Rural population in the district is 13,84,746 persons and urban population is 11,89,321 persons. Among the total population 15,32,258 persons are literates.

The total workers in the population are 14,31,276 persons, remaining 11,42,791 persons are non-workers. Among them male workers are 8,72,493 persons, and female workers are 5,58,783 persons. Out of the

total workers, rural workers are 8,49,788 persons and urban workers are 5,81,488 persons, cultivators are 3,00,443 persons, and agricultural labourers 4,86,580 persons. Household Industrial workers are 73,388 persons; the other workers are 5,70,865 persons and the marginal workers are 1,15,837 persons.

Languages and Religion

Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, Kannada and Urdu are the languages spoken in this district. The major religious groups are, Hindu, Muslim, and Christian.

Geography and Physical Features

By and large the region comprised in the district could be described as a long undulating plain gently sloping towards the river Cauvery in the south-east. The long stretch of mountains in the north which slopes gradually is drained by the three major tributaries of river Cauvery viz., Bhavani, Noyyal, and Amaravathy. Cauvery which enters the district from Salem runs in a southerly direction forming part of the eastern boundary of the district.

The soils of the district are mostly red sand and gravel with moderate amounts of red loam and occasional black loam tracts. Vast stretches of the upland regions are mostly stony and gravelly. The district covers 28 per cent of the total area under forests.

Land and Land Use Pattern

As per revenue land records, the total geographical area of the district is 816,191 hectares. Of those 309,252 hectares have been brought under cultivation as net area sown. This accounts for 37.8 per cent of the total area of the district. Area sown more than once is 47,255 hectares i.e., 4% of the total net area sown. Total cropped area is 356,507 hectares i.e., 43.6 per cent of the total area sown in the district. Forests account for 228,750 hectares. Cultivable waste has been reduced to merely 1330 hectares. Less than 8.6 per cent of the total area is put to non-agricultural use. However, 18.1 per cent is accounted for by fallow lands (148,802 hectares). Trees, crops, groves, Orchards, etc. together account for about 0.6 per cent of the total area in the district.

Trade and Industry

Erode district has a place of unique importance with 40.32 per cent of population depending on non-agricultural sector. Industries and trades naturally occupy a place of prominence in the economy of the district. Bhavani, Erode, and Gobichettipalayam contribute to occupy an important place in the field of oil-pressing. The industry which has been able to totally withstand the onslaught of modernisation has been the handloom weaving. Erode, Chennimalai, etc. still hold their way and the district is noted for its handloom products, which include cotton sarees, bed-spreads, towels, furnishing fabrics, etc. Two other important

production centers are Bhavani and Jambai. It is reported that more than 39212 power looms are functioning in Erode District. There are 15 cooperative societies covering 3649 power looms. Erode, Bhavani, Perundurai, Kangayam, and Dharapuram are centers where a number of rice mills are flourishing. There are also a number of leather tanneries in Erode and Dharapuram. Large quantities of leather are brought here for tanning and later exported to foreign countries. Small units have been set up here for the manufacture of steel furniture, nuller screen, etc. There is also a unit for the manufacture of bolts, nuts, and screws.

Police Administration

There are 49 police stations (Figure 3.4) functioning in the district with one police outposts. 1229 Local Police Forces and 242 Armed Reserve Police forces have been working in this district. There is no central prison, but 7 other prisons are functioning in this district.

Nilgiris District

Area and Location

Nilgiris is known for its natural beauty. It is called as the queen of hills and it attracts a large number of tourists all round the year. This district is situated at an elevation of 900 to 2636 metres above mountain slopes. Its latitudinal and longitudinal dimensions being 130 km (Latitude: 10-38 W to 11-49 N) by 185 km (Longitude: 76.0 E to 75.15 E). The Nilgiris

is bounded on North by Karnataka State, on the West by Coimbatore District, Erode District, South by Coimbatore District and Kerala State and on the East by Kerala State. In Nilgiris District the topography is rolling and steep. About 60% of the cultivable land falls under the slopes ranging from 16 to 35 per cent. The total area of the district is 2452.50 sq. km. Headquarters of this district is Ooty.

District Administration

The Nilgiris District comprises six taluks viz., Udhagamandalam, Kundah, Coonoor, Kotagiri, Gudalur, and Pandalur. These taluks are divided into four Panchayat Unions viz., Udhagamandalam, Coonoor, Kotagiri, and Gudalur, besides two Municipalities, Wellington cantonment and Aravankadu Township. The District consists of 56 Revenue villages and 15 Revenue Firkas. There are two Revenue Divisions in this district viz., Coonoor and Gudalur. There are 35 village Panchayat and 13 town Panchayat in this district.

Population

The district consists of mostly tribal groups and the predominant tribal groups are known as Todas and Badugas. As per 2001 census the population of this district is 7,64,826 persons. The male population comprises 3,79,610, while female population is 3,85,216 persons. The rural population in this district is 3,09,652 and urban population is 4,55,174

persons. Among the total population, literates are 5,56,783 persons. Male literates are 3,03,697 and female literates are 2,53,086 persons.

Irrigation Source

There are no irrigation schemes in this district. The crops are mainly rain fed. Check Dams have been constructed wherever it is possible to exploit natural springs.

Crops

The Nilgiris District is basically a Horticulture District and the entire economy of the district depends upon the success and failure of Horticulture crops like potato, cabbage, carrot, tea, coffee, spices, and fruits. The main cultivation is plantation crops, viz., tea and coffee. Potatoes and vegetables are raised in Udhagai and Coonoor taluks. Paddy and Ginger are grown in Gudalur and Pandalur taluks. Paddy is also grown in small extent throughout the district.

Police Administration

Nilgiris district (Figure 3.5) consists of 28 police stations out of which 3 stations are all women police stations. It also has 3 special units.

CHAPTER 4

AREA PROFILE

In Tamil Nadu state of India, Coimbatore region consists of three districts namely Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris. The area profile of these districts is furnished below.

Coimbatore District

Coimbatore is the third largest city of the state, and it is one of the most industrialized cities in Tamil Nadu. It is known as the textile capital of the South India or the Manchester of the South India. The city is situated on the banks of the river Noyyal. Located in the rain shadow region of the Western ghats, Coimbatore enjoys a very pleasant climate all the year round, aided by the fresh breeze that flows through the 25 kms long Palakkad gap. The rich black soil of the region has contributed to Coimbatore's flourishing agriculture industry and it is in fact the cause for the successful growth of the cotton that serves as a foundation for the establishment of its famous textile industry. The first textile mill came up as far back as 1888 but there are now over hundred mills. The result has been a strong economy and a reputation as one of the greatest industrial cities in South India.

Area and Location

Coimbatore is an inland district in the Southern part of the Peninsula. Coimbatore district lies between 10°10' and 11°3' of the northern latitude and 76°40' and 77°30' of the eastern longitude in the extreme west of Tamil Nadu. It is bounded in the north and east by Erode district. In the west and south the mountain ranges, viz., the western Ghats and Anamalai provide its boundary. In the west, to the south-west of its Headquarters city (Coimbatore), there is a mountain pass in the Western Ghats. Due to the presence of the mountain pass major parts of the district benefit from the South-west monsoon. Apart from its influence on the climatic conditions in the district, the pass which is commonly known as Palghat Gap has an enduring influence on the trade and commerce that are centered in and around Coimbatore city. This opening in the Western ghats provides a direct access to the traders in the West Coast of the city of Coimbatore and vice versa, thus establishing a constant and continuous intercourse in trade with the west coast. Total area of this district is 7470 sq. kms and its headquarters is Coimbatore city.

District Administration

Coimbatore district is one of the biggest districts in Tamil Nadu. It is divided into three Revenue Divisions and nine Taluks consisting of 482 Revenue villages. Out of three Revenue Divisions, Coimbatore

Division is industrially developed, Pollachi is predominantly agricultural and Tirupur partly agricultural and partly rich in hosiery manufacturing.

Local Bodies

The district consists of one corporation, two special grade, one selection grade and one first grade Municipalities. It also has 19 panchayat unions, 59 town panchayats and 389 village panchayats.

Population

Total population of the district according to 2001 census is 42,24,107 persons, comprising 21,56,280 males and 20,67,827 females; urban population is 2789071 persons and rural population is 1435036 persons. Total literacy rate for Coimbatore district is 673.49 persons which comprises of 739.79 literate males and 605.36 literate females. Total workers in this district are 14,31,276 persons (male workers 8,72,493 and female workers 5,58,783 persons). Of the total workers, rural workers are 8,49,788 persons and urban workers (which include city workers also) are 5,81,488 persons. The cultivators are 3,00,443 and agricultural labourers are 4,86,580 person. Household industrial workers are 73,388 persons and other workers are 5,70,865. The marginal workers are about 1,15,837 persons.

Languages and Religions

Main languages spoken in the district are Tamil, Kannada, Malayalam, Telugu, and Urdu. Major religious groups in the district are Hindus, Christians, Muslims, Jains, and Sikhs.

Geography and Physical Features

Soils of the district are mostly of black cotton variety but red loam are also found in Avanashi and Coimbatore taluks. The soil in Coimbatore taluk is found enriched with organic matter from the hill ranges. There are rich tracks of red loam in Palladam and Pollachi taluks. The soil in Pollachi taluk are mostly of sandy loam after mixed with gravel. The red soils around the Anamalais are found to be very rich and fertile.

Coimbatore is perhaps one of the very few districts in the state which can boast of considerable areas of dense forests. More than 20 per cent of the total districts area is under forest. The district has 146905 hectares of reserve forests and together with reserve lands, etc. The total extent is about 154974 hectares. The forests are bound in commercially significant items such as Teak, Sandalwood, Rosewood, Vagai, Pillaimarathu, etc.

Police Administration

The police administration in the district consists of two units i.e., City Police and Rural Police (Figures 3.2 & 3.3), each of them under the

control of the Commissioner of Police and the Superintendent of Police respectively. There are about 15 police stations including 3 all women police stations in Coimbatore city. One CRPF unit is permanently stationed in Coimbatore to assist the city police.

Coimbatore Rural District Police headed by the Superintendent of Police, consists of 54 police stations with 1469 police personnel including 380 Armed Reserved Personnel. Coimbatore Revenue Divisions other than Coimbatore city, Pollachi and Tirupur Divisions are coming under Coimbatore Rural Police. The D.I.G. of police, Coimbatore Range, is functioning in Coimbatore and having jurisdiction over Coimbatore Rural District, Erode and the Nilgiris Districts: Tamil Nadu special police IV Battalion with 1200 men is under the administrative control of one commandant (I.P.S. Officer) based at Kovaipudhur which is on the outskirts of Coimbatore city.

Erode District

Erode District, once a part of Coimbatore, has its history intervened with that of Coimbatore and because of its close linkage with the erstwhile Coimbatore district. It is very difficult to separately deal with the history of Erode region. Together with the area comprised in the Coimbatore district, it formed part of the ancient “Kongu Nadu” history which dates back to Sangam era.

Erode District came into being as a result of the bifurcation of Coimbatore District, through the G.O Ms. No. 1917, Revenue dated 31.8.1979. Bhavani, Dharapuram, Erode, and Satyamangalam taluks were included in Coimbatore district which had a composite character, at the beginning of the century. Of these, Sathyamangalam Taluk was renamed as Gobichettipalayam taluk retaining Sathyamangalam as a sub-taluk. In 1975, Satyamangalam sub-taluk was upgraded into a taluk. In 1979 Perundururai sub-taluk was upgraded into taluk and in 1981 Kangayam sub-taluk was upgraded into taluk. These seven taluks were grouped together to constitute the new district of Erode city.

Area and Location

Erode District lies on the extreme north of Tamil Nadu. It is bounded mostly by Karnataka state and also river Palar covers pretty long distance. To the East lies Namakkal and Karur Districts. Dindigal District is its immediate neighbour to the south and on the west, it has Coimbatore and Nilgiris Districts, as its boundaries. Thus Erode District is essentially a land-locked area having no sea-coast of its own. The Erode District is situated between 10°36' and 11°58' North Latitude and between 76°49' and 77°58' East Longitude.

The region comprised in the district can be portrayed as a long undulating plain gently sloping towards the river Cauvery in the south-east. The three major tributaries of river Cauvery viz., Bhavani, Noyyal and

Amaravathy drain the long stretch of mountains in the north. A part of the eastern boundary of the district is formed by river Cauvery, entering the district from Salem and flowing in a Southernly direction. Total area of the district is 8,162 sq. kms. Headquarters of this district is Erode.

District Administration

Erode District consists of 7 taluks viz., Sathyamangalam, Bhavani, Gobichettipalayam, Perundurai, Erode, Kangayam, and Dharapuram. There are 5 municipalities in the district viz., Sathyamangalam, Bhavani, Gobichettipalayam, Erode, and Dharapuram. There are 59 town Panchayats and 3 village Panchayats declared as census town as per census 2001 and 539 Revenue villages. There are 20 community development blocks in the district.

Population

Total population of the district according to 2001 census is 25,74,067 persons, comprising 13,06,039 males and 12,68,028 females. Rural population in the district is 13,84,746 persons and urban population is 11,89,321 persons. Among the total population 15,32,258 persons are literates.

The total workers in the population are 14,31,276 persons, remaining 11,42,791 persons are non-workers. Among them male workers are 8,72,493 persons, and female workers are 5,58,783 persons. Out of the

total workers, rural workers are 8,49,788 persons and urban workers are 5,81,488 persons, cultivators are 3,00,443 persons, and agricultural labourers 4,86,580 persons. Household Industrial workers are 73,388 persons; the other workers are 5,70,865 persons and the marginal workers are 1,15,837 persons.

Languages and Religion

Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, Kannada and Urdu are the languages spoken in this district. The major religious groups are, Hindu, Muslim, and Christian.

Geography and Physical Features

By and large the region comprised in the district could be described as a long undulating plain gently sloping towards the river Cauvery in the south-east. The long stretch of mountains in the north which slopes gradually is drained by the three major tributaries of river Cauvery viz., Bhavani, Noyyal, and Amaravathy. Cauvery which enters the district from Salem runs in a southerly direction forming part of the eastern boundary of the district.

The soils of the district are mostly red sand and gravel with moderate amounts of red loam and occasional black loam tracts. Vast stretches of the upland regions are mostly stony and gravelly. The district covers 28 per cent of the total area under forests.

Land and Land Use Pattern

As per revenue land records, the total geographical area of the district is 816,191 hectares. Of those 309,252 hectares have been brought under cultivation as net area sown. This accounts for 37.8 per cent of the total area of the district. Area sown more than once is 47,255 hectares i.e., 4% of the total net area sown. Total cropped area is 356,507 hectares i.e., 43.6 per cent of the total area sown in the district. Forests account for 228,750 hectares. Cultivable waste has been reduced to merely 1330 hectares. Less than 8.6 per cent of the total area is put to non-agricultural use. However, 18.1 per cent is accounted for by fallow lands (148,802 hectares). Trees, crops, groves, Orchards, etc. together account for about 0.6 per cent of the total area in the district.

Trade and Industry

Erode district has a place of unique importance with 40.32 per cent of population depending on non-agricultural sector. Industries and trades naturally occupy a place of prominence in the economy of the district. Bhavani, Erode, and Gobichettipalayam contribute to occupy an important place in the field of oil-pressing. The industry which has been able to totally withstand the onslaught of modernisation has been the handloom weaving. Erode, Chennimalai, etc. still hold their way and the district is noted for its handloom products, which include cotton sarees, bed-spreads, towels, furnishing fabrics, etc. Two other important

production centers are Bhavani and Jambai. It is reported that more than 39212 power looms are functioning in Erode District. There are 15 cooperative societies covering 3649 power looms. Erode, Bhavani, Perundurai, Kangayam, and Dharapuram are centers where a number of rice mills are flourishing. There are also a number of leather tanneries in Erode and Dharapuram. Large quantities of leather are brought here for tanning and later exported to foreign countries. Small units have been set up here for the manufacture of steel furniture, nuller screen, etc. There is also a unit for the manufacture of bolts, nuts, and screws.

Police Administration

There are 49 police stations (Figure 3.4) functioning in the district with one police outposts. 1229 Local Police Forces and 242 Armed Reserve Police forces have been working in this district. There is no central prison, but 7 other prisons are functioning in this district.

Nilgiris District

Area and Location

Nilgiris is known for its natural beauty. It is called as the queen of hills and it attracts a large number of tourists all round the year. This district is situated at an elevation of 900 to 2636 metres above mountain slopes. Its latitudinal and longitudinal dimensions being 130 km (Latitude: 10-38 W to 11-49 N) by 185 km (Longitude: 76.0 E to 75.15 E). The Nilgiris

is bounded on North by Karnataka State, on the West by Coimbatore District, Erode District, South by Coimbatore District and Kerala State and on the East by Kerala State. In Nilgiris District the topography is rolling and steep. About 60% of the cultivable land falls under the slopes ranging from 16 to 35 per cent. The total area of the district is 2452.50 sq. km. Headquarters of this district is Ooty.

District Administration

The Nilgiris District comprises six taluks viz., Udhagamandalam, Kundah, Coonoor, Kotagiri, Gudalur, and Pandalur. These taluks are divided into four Panchayat Unions viz., Udhagamandalam, Coonoor, Kotagiri, and Gudalur, besides two Municipalities, Wellington cantonment and Aravankadu Township. The District consists of 56 Revenue villages and 15 Revenue Firkas. There are two Revenue Divisions in this district viz., Coonoor and Gudalur. There are 35 village Panchayat and 13 town Panchayat in this district.

Population

The district consists of mostly tribal groups and the predominant tribal groups are known as Todas and Badugas. As per 2001 census the population of this district is 7,64,826 persons. The male population comprises 3,79,610, while female population is 3,85,216 persons. The rural population in this district is 3,09,652 and urban population is 4,55,174

persons. Among the total population, literates are 5,56,783 persons. Male literates are 3,03,697 and female literates are 2,53,086 persons.

Irrigation Source

There are no irrigation schemes in this district. The crops are mainly rain fed. Check Dams have been constructed wherever it is possible to exploit natural springs.

Crops

The Nilgiris District is basically a Horticulture District and the entire economy of the district depends upon the success and failure of Horticulture crops like potato, cabbage, carrot, tea, coffee, spices, and fruits. The main cultivation is plantation crops, viz., tea and coffee. Potatoes and vegetables are raised in Udhagai and Coonoor taluks. Paddy and Ginger are grown in Gudalur and Pandalur taluks. Paddy is also grown in small extent throughout the district.

Police Administration

Nilgiris district (Figure 3.5) consists of 28 police stations out of which 3 stations are all women police stations. It also has 3 special units.

CHAPTER 5

TREND OF CRIME IN COIMBATORE REGION

The study of crime patterns over a period of time is to discover regularities that aid one in understanding the phenomenon of crime and its ecological pattern. The structure of society (social, legal, political, economic, and demographic) changes over time. It is dynamic not static. If crime is related to these conditions, then crime pattern should change over time as society changes. A trend is a general increase or decrease of available data over an extended period of time. It is the overall multi-point pattern. The variation may either be positive or negative.

Before independence, the British judicial process and law enforcement agencies were tuned to the twin objectives of controlling the people through deterrent penalties and threatening law enforcement. After independence the democratic process of regulatory mechanisms and individual oriented democratic judicial processes were set in motion. Safeguarding individual liberty, rights and responsibility and law enforcement with a friendly approach was attempted. It was believed that the fear of the police had to be removed and the approach of the police had to safeguard individual rights and to seek legal remedy for any problem in a friendly manner.

The orientation of the police and their approach towards people underwent drastic changes. People were requested to come forward to register their complaints readily in the police stations. Moreover government sought to encourage law enforcement through a system of rewards paid to persons successfully prosecuting criminals and a system of immunities and pardons given to criminals turning crown evidence against co-offenders. Such factors could influence the reported rate of offence in Coimbatore region.

A general trend of crime could be studied based on the “Crimes Known to Police”. It is the best available index, since it represents crimes “reported to the police” by citizens or crimes discovered by the police and noted in their records. At the macro level it has been concerned for analyzing the temporal change of crime rates among very large aggregates of people.

With the available crime records in the police department, a systematic analysis of patterns of crime for ten years in Coimbatore region has been done by the researcher. The police officials availed the ten years crime records with different patterns of crime, which have been used by the researcher for trend analysis. For verification, criminal records of the previous years have also been used by the researcher.

In order to determine the changing trend of crime over the period, the total number of crimes that are filed both under Indian Penal Code as well

as Special and Local Law offences are used. Moreover to bring out the uniformity in crime statistics, they are grouped based on the instructions in a manual, which defines and categorizes the types of crime. A crime is generally classified based on its nature. In the crime against the person (dowry death, rape, murder, etc.) the number of victims have been counted. For the other index crimes such as crime against property (burglary, theft, etc.) each event is counted as an offence regardless of the number of victims or offenders.

The crime trend may vary based on the geographical distribution of population in the region for every year. The increase or decrease in population can tend to change the rate of crime. In order to check the influence of population over crime, the researcher decided to study the crime trend based on the population and its rate.

This study analyses the trends of crime along with the population increase in Coimbatore region. (Coimbatore District, Erode District and Nilgiris District) for a decade i.e., from 1993 to 2002. The researcher collected the population, for the years 1991 and 2001, of each district from the Provisional Population of the Indian Census report. In between, years of population are estimated through the exponential growth rate method.

The different types of crimes that are included for the trend analysis of crimes in Coimbatore region are listed below:

a. Cognizable Offences Under Indian Penal Code

- i) Property offences : Theft, burglary, dacoity, and robbery
- ii) Grave offences : Murder for gain, attempt murder, murder for other purposes, hurts, and riots
- iii) Crimes against women: Dowry death, molestation, rape, and kidnapping/abduction

b. Special and Local Law Offences

Crimes recorded under special and local laws such as, Narcotic Drug and Psychiatric Substance Act, Gambling Act, Prohibition Act, Arms and Explosives Act, Immoral Traffic Act, Criminal Breach of Trust, Counterfeiting and Misappropriation Act have been summed up every year, and the rate of crime in each district is analysed in relation to the estimated population of each district.

Trend of Crime in Coimbatore District

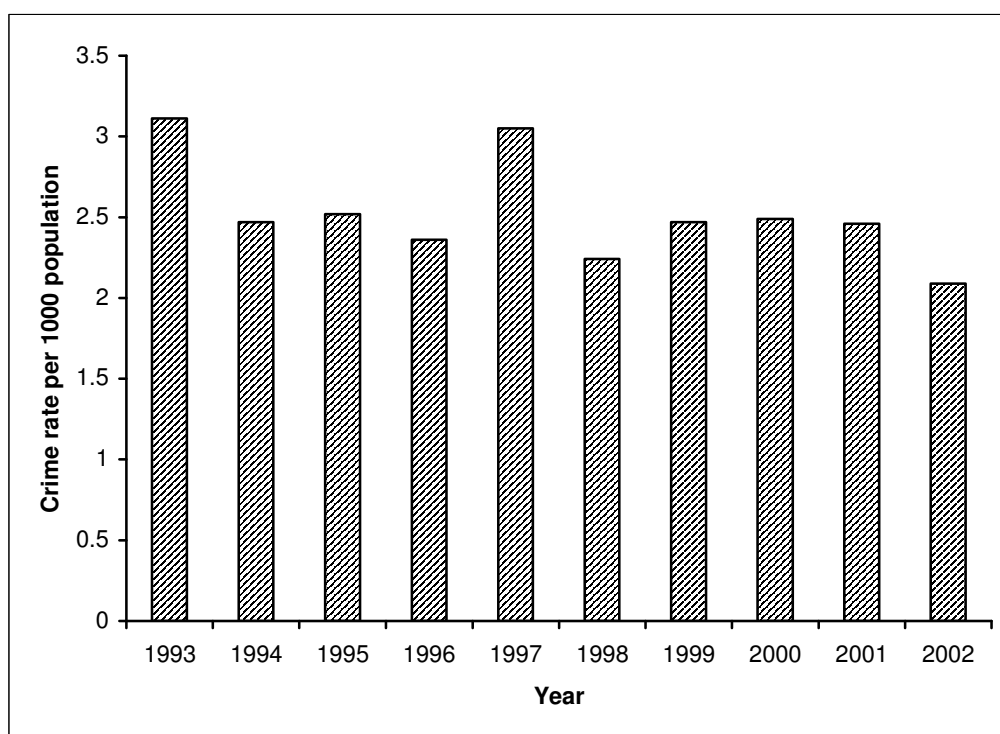
In the Coimbatore region, Coimbatore district has the highest population when compared with the other two districts namely, Nilgiris and Erode. Crime trend in this district is analyzed based on the population increase for a decade. Table 5.1 and figure 5.1 give the comparison of estimated population and its growth rate and crime rate from the year 1993 to 2002 in Coimbatore district.

Table 5.1

Trend of Crime in Coimbatore District

Year	Coimbatore Population	Population Growth Rate	Reported Crimes	Crime Rate Per 1000 Population
1993	3640639	1.87	11333	3.11
1994	3708351	1.85	9180	2.47
1995	3777817	1.87	9538	2.52
1996	3848335	1.86	9085	2.36
1997	3919906	1.85	11990	3.05
1998	3993231	1.87	8945	2.24
1999	4067959	1.87	10087	2.47
2000	4143740	1.86	10351	2.49
2001	4224107	1.93	10398	2.46
2002	4299863	1.80	9026	2.09

Figure 5.1. Trend of Crime in Coimbatore District



The table above gives the reported crime and the rate of crime from 1993 to 2002. The number of crimes reported in 1993 were 11,333 cases with the crime rate of 3.11 which was the highest. This high rate of crime made the government to strengthen the police force to control the incidence of crime in the subsequent years. Moreover police officials were provided with modern gadgets of communication and transport facilities by which they could present on the crime spot in time. This brought down crime rate with little fluctuations from 1994 to 1996. The crime rate was 2.47, 2.52, and 2.36 for the years 1994, 1995 and 1996 respectively.

In the year 1997, the crime rate increased to 3.05. This was mainly due to the gradual increase of population in Coimbatore District. As the district was enriched with textile and other industrial development, wider economic opportunities were available for the job seekers. Moreover the transport and communication facilities also facilitated the higher magnitude of the floating population in cities and urban centres of Coimbatore district. The increase in crime rate makes the police officials suspect that this may be due to the illegal activities of immigrants from neighbouring areas. Shaw and Mckay, in their social disorganisation theory, explain this association in terms of social-control breakdown in immigrant neighbourhoods, where people find themselves caught between the old conduct norms, which no longer control them, and the new conduct norms, which they do not yet

understand⁸⁴. The year 1997 witnessed unprecedented communal clash followed by series of bomb blasts in Coimbatore district, which forced the law enforcing authorities to take a serious note, and ruthlessly contained anti-social elements. As a consequence the crime rate came down to 2.24 in the following year 1998. Due to tough measures taken by police authorities like increasing the Rapid Action Force (RAF), strict vigilance, arresting suspected terrorists, the subsequent years saw fluctuations in the crime rate i.e., 2.47 in 1999, 2.49 in 2000, 2.46 in 2001 and 2.09 in 2002.

Though the rate of crime has been controlled by the police, still the number of cognizable crimes such as theft, robbery, burglary are increasing considerably. But decreasing trend of crime rate can be noticed when compared to that of increase in population especially crimes against women, and other law and order cases are less in number. This decreasing trend may also be due to reluctance of the public to come forward and report the cases. Public criticism, lengthy trial, police apathy, and legal expenses make people get away from police station. Apart from this the fear of harmful consequences from criminals make some of the victims to be away from reporting the offences.

Trend of Crime in Erode District

Erode district is the territory covered mostly with rural areas. The population in this district and its growth rate is less when compared to

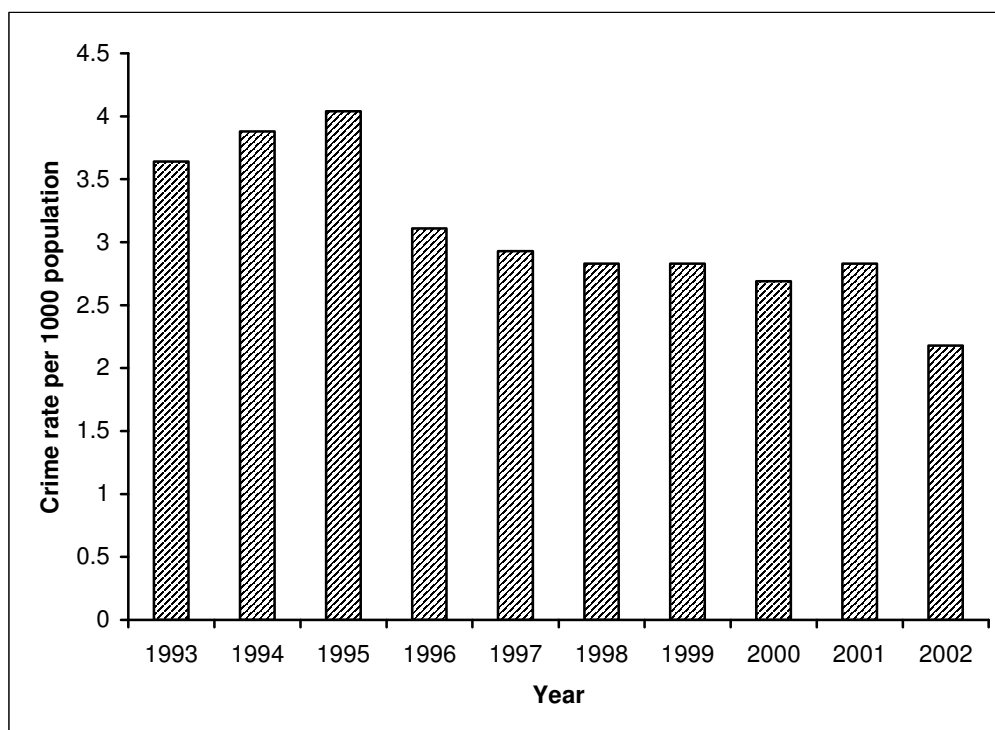
⁸⁴ Shaw and McKay, *Op. Cit.*

that of Coimbatore district. Table 5.2 and figure 5.2 describe the growth of population and the rate of crime from the year 1993 to 2002 in Erode District.

Table 5.2
Trend of Crime in Erode District

Year	Erode Population	Population Growth Rate	Reported Crimes	Crime Rate Per 1000 Population
1993	2368988	1.04	8621	3.64
1994	2393583	1.03	9289	3.88
1995	2418642	1.04	9777	4.04
1996	2443933	1.04	7594	3.11
1997	2469455	1.04	7235	2.93
1998	2495442	1.05	7079	2.83
1999	2521429	1.04	7147	2.83
2000	2547880	1.04	6872	2.69
2001	2574067	1.03	7299	2.83
2002	2601246	1.05	5673	2.18

Figure 5.2. Trend of Crime in Erode District



It is observed from the above table that the growth rate of population is more or less same i.e., 1.04 for every year starting from 1993 to 2002 in Erode district. The reported crimes in this district for the year 1993 was 8621 cases and the rate of crime was 3.64. And there was a gradual increase of crime rate i.e., 3.88 and 4.04 in the years 1994 and 1995 respectively. Erode is one of the dominating handloom weaving centres in Tamil Nadu. In this district a large number of handlooms and power loom factories are found. Wide ranging unemployment was rampant among the handloom weavers, whenever there was a recession in handloom market. This led to more number of petty thefts forcing crime rate to be markedly high during the years 1993, 1994 and 1995. However, efforts taken by political authorities provided some relief to the handloom sectors, and this was reflected in the number of crimes reported during subsequent years.

In the year 1996, crime rate declined highly from 4.04 to 3.11. After that, there was not much change in the rate of crime. It was 2.93 in the year 1997 and 2.83 in the two subsequent years 1998 and 1999. In the year 2000, the crime rate declined further to 2.69. While slight increase in the crime rate could be noticed in the year 2001, again in the year 2002, it showed a sharp decline from 2.83 to 2.18. Since Erode emerged as industrial and commercial centre, it promoted migration from neighbouring areas, and this paved way for increasing crime rate in 1993, 1994 and 1995. But with the efficient work of police officials, crimes were controlled in the following years.

The government also increased the strength of armed forces in order to control the problem of riots that occurred in urban and major areas of the city. The police patrol and vigilance were also more severe in this district. Though the crimes like pocket picking, vehicle theft and other property offences were still very high due to the economic growth and commercial changes, some of the cognizable offences like riot, hurt cases including grave property offences were kept in control by the police officials to avoid social disorganisation and to maintain social harmony.

Police forces were increased in Erode district mainly for two reasons i.e., Erode district was the adjoining district of Coimbatore district where there was widespread communal violence from 1995 to 1998. Consequently the police force was kept in vigilance in Erode district in order to check the movement of the violent activities of fundamentalists. Secondly Erode district was covered with 244,066 hectares (28 per cent of the district) of forest area where the activities of smuggling were found to be quite common. In order to check these activities, police forces were increased in later years. Due to these reasons, decline in crime rate could be noticed from the year 1996 to 2002.

Trend of Crime in Nilgiris District

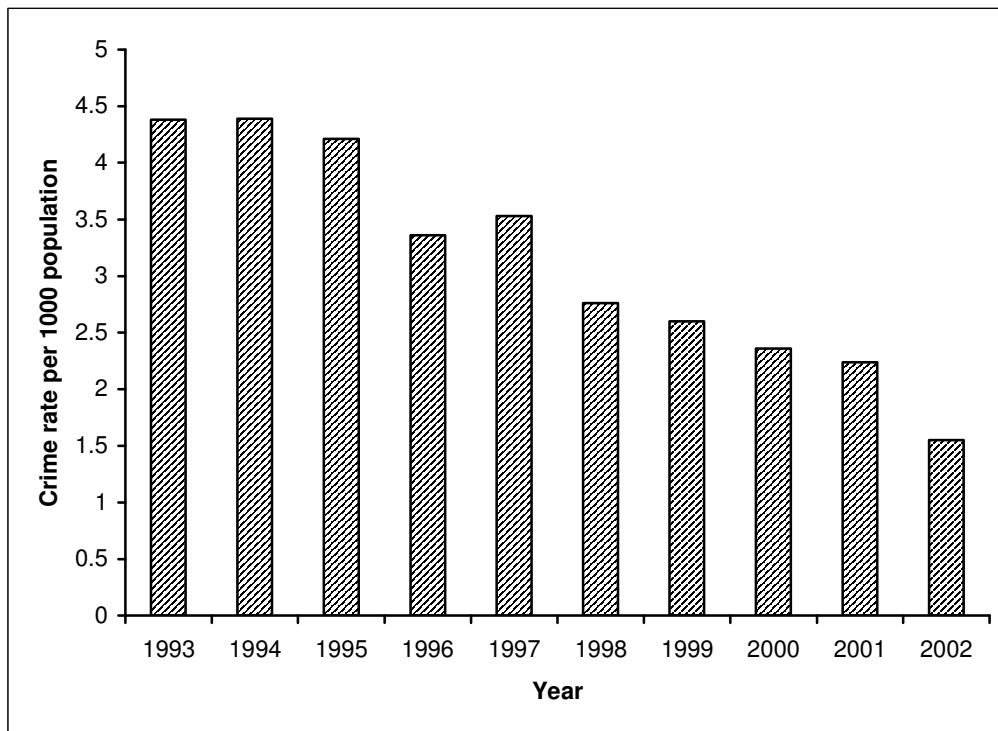
Nilgiris district is fully covered with mountain slopes and greeneries. The district has a relatively low level of urbanization and industrialization when compared to the other two districts (Erode and Coimbatore). The cool

climatic condition of this district encourages tourism in Tamil Nadu. The population of the district according to 2001 year census was only 7,64,826 which was very low when compared with the population of other two districts. The table 5.3 and figure 5.3 give the rate of crime from the year 1993 to 2002.

Table 5.3
Trend of Crime in Nilgiris District

Year	Nilgiris Population	Population Growth Rate	Reported Crimes	Crime Rate Per 1000 Population
1993	720796	0.74	3160	4.38
1994	726122	0.73	3188	4.39
1995	731520	0.74	3087	4.21
1996	736918	0.73	2482	3.36
1997	742386	0.74	2626	3.53
1998	747926	0.74	2065	2.76
1999	753469	0.74	1906	2.60
2000	759076	0.74	1792	2.36
2001	764826	0.75	1716	2.24
2002	770440	0.73	1195	1.55

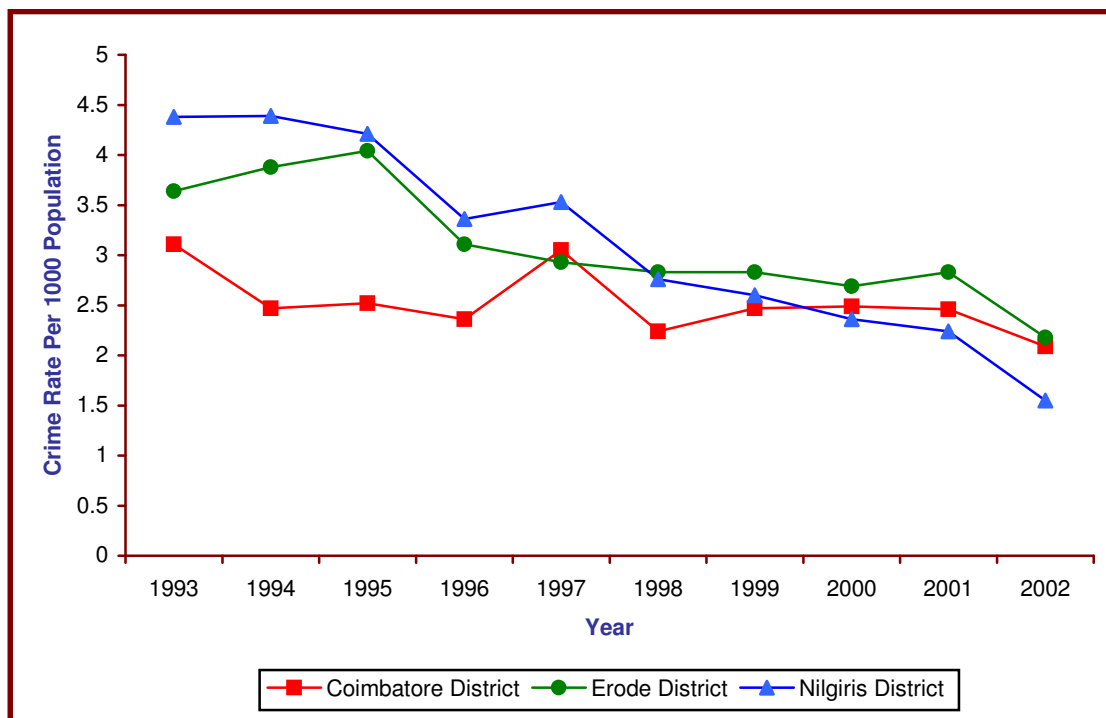
Figure 5.3. Trend of Crime in Nilgiris District



The table above reveals the crime trend in Nilgiris District for a decade. The population growth was 0.74 per cent per annum in this district i.e., the population in the year 1993 was only 720796 persons that had grown up to 770440 persons in the year 2002. Even though there was a near constant population growth, it could be noticed that the crime rate declined gradually. The crime rate was 4.58 in the year 1993 which came down to 1.55 in the year 2002. The decrease in crime rate was steady.

The district is covered with tea and coffee plantations in the hilly areas. The native population is mostly tribal community people namely Todas and Badugas. Whenever problems arise among these tribal groups, they are solved by themselves with the tribal head as chief. Besides, the urban areas of this district are filled with floating population who visit the place for its tourist attraction. So these areas are devoid of grave offences and only property offences like pocket picking, vehicle thefts, and burglaries are committed from the travelers. In order to elevate Nilgiris as an important area of tourist attraction and to make the place free from criminal offences, tremendous efforts have been taken by the police officials to check the crime rate. Thus the district shows constant decrease in crime rate from the year 1993 to 2002.

Figure 5.4. Trend of Crime in Coimbatore Region 1993-2002



When the crime trend in three districts are compared, the above figure reveals that Nilgiris shows a constant decrease in crime rate as it has no commercialized city centres. In Coimbatore and Erode, even though the rate of crime is declining, it is marked by fluctuations. This is due to the increasing number of thefts and burglary in city and urban areas where the density of population is high. This was also observed by Rencek while studying crime rate in Cleveland and San Diego of U.S.A., he concluded that blocks with large population, high population densities and many apparent buildings have higher rates of property crime than violent crime⁸⁵.

The number of crimes reported in any particular region also depend on frequency of occurrence as well as efficiency of crime recording and investigating by the concerned police authorities. Sometime the political will also influences the trend of crime.

In Coimbatore region between 1993 and 2002, there was a noticeable fluctuation. In Coimbatore district the crime rate was 3.14 per 1000 in the year 1993 and by 2002 it came down to just 2.09 per 1000 population. In between, the year 1997 saw an abnormal increase of 0.6 per 1000 population. This general trend is reflected in other districts of the Coimbatore region also.

⁸⁵ Rencek, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 77-96.

In addition to trend analysis, the researcher examined the spatial spread of crime in Coimbatore region so as to understand the crime-prone areas in each district of this region. For this purpose, the recorded cognizable offences which include property offences, grave offences, crimes against women in Coimbatore region for the year 2002 were taken up for analysis.*

Spatial Spread of Crime

Coimbatore region is not a homogeneous territorial area. There is considerable variation in terms of population composition, density, economic activities and spatial spread. Administratively this region is divided into three districts. Coimbatore district as such has a mean density of 565.47 persons per sq. km and high degree of urbanization with 30.06 percentage of people in cities, 10.46 percentage of people living in urban areas, and 59.48 percentage of people living in rural areas. In the case of Erode district, the mean density is 315.37 persons per sq. km. City population of this district constitutes 11.97 percentage. Urban population is only 4.67 percentage and rural population is as high as 83.36 percentage. In the case of Nilgiris district the mean density is 311.86 persons per sq. km. There are no cities in Nilgiris district, and its urban population constitutes 18.83 percentage and rural population is 81.17 percentage.

* For the purpose of spatial analysis 2001 census data has been extensively used. Data on rural, urban differences and other demographic variables are available only for decadal information and for middle years it is difficult to calculate or estimate reasonably reliable data. Therefore uniformly 2001 census reports and 2002 crime records have been used for comparison.

Table 5.4

Spatial Spread of Crime in Coimbatore Region – 2002

Territorial Areas	Coimbatore District		Erode District		Nilgiris District	
	Population	No. of Crimes	Population	No. of Crimes	Population	No. of Crimes
Cities	1269636 (30.06)	1708 (58.02)	308028 (11.97)	310 (29.08)	-	-
Urban Areas	442156 (10.46)	326 (11.07)	120287 (4.67)	143 (13.42)	144000 (18.83)	88 (34.11)
Rural Areas	2512315 (59.48)	910 (30.91)	2145752 (83.36)	613 (57.50)	620826 (81.17)	170 (65.89)
Total	4224107 (100.0)	2944 (100.0)	2574067 (100.0)	1066 (100.0)	764826 (100.0)	258 (100.0)

Figure 5.5. Spatial Spread of Crime in Coimbatore District

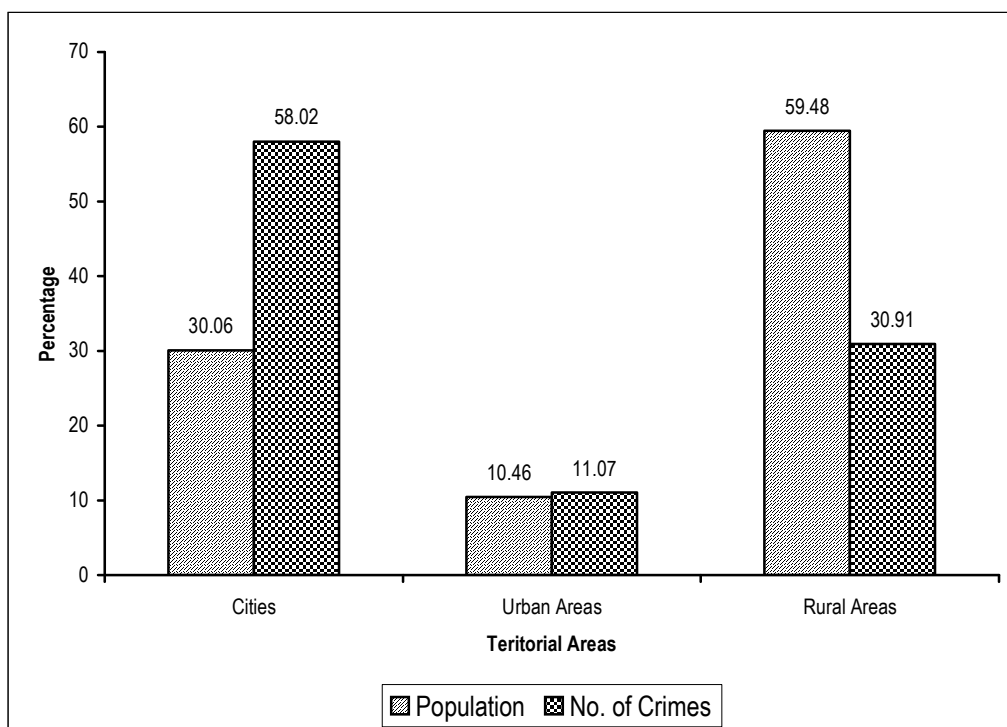


Figure 5.6. Spatial Spread of Crime in Erode District

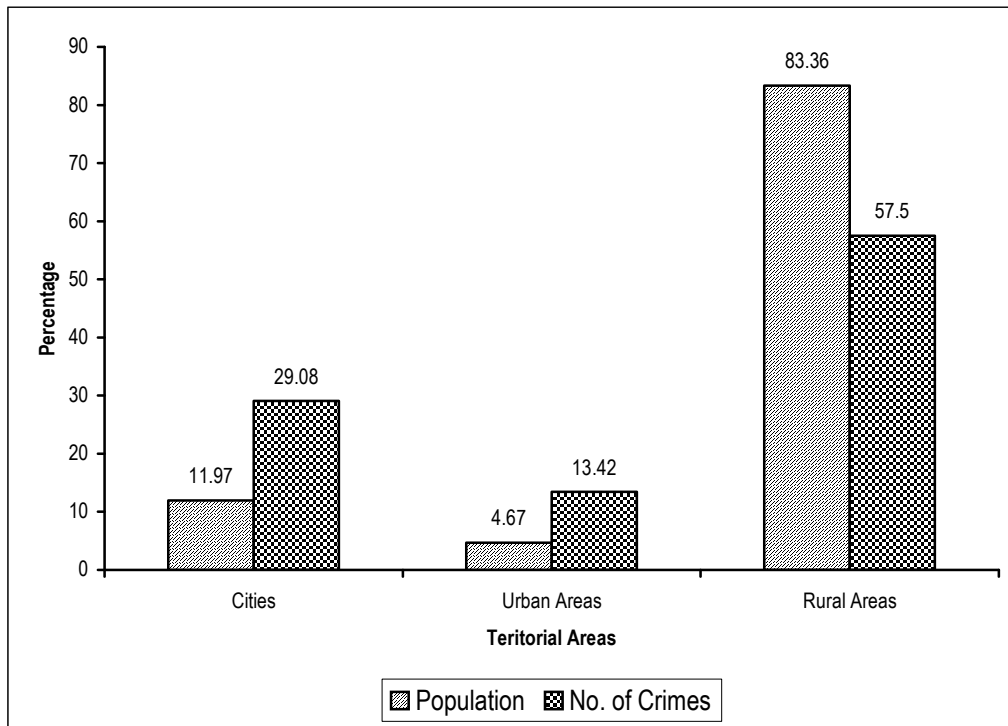
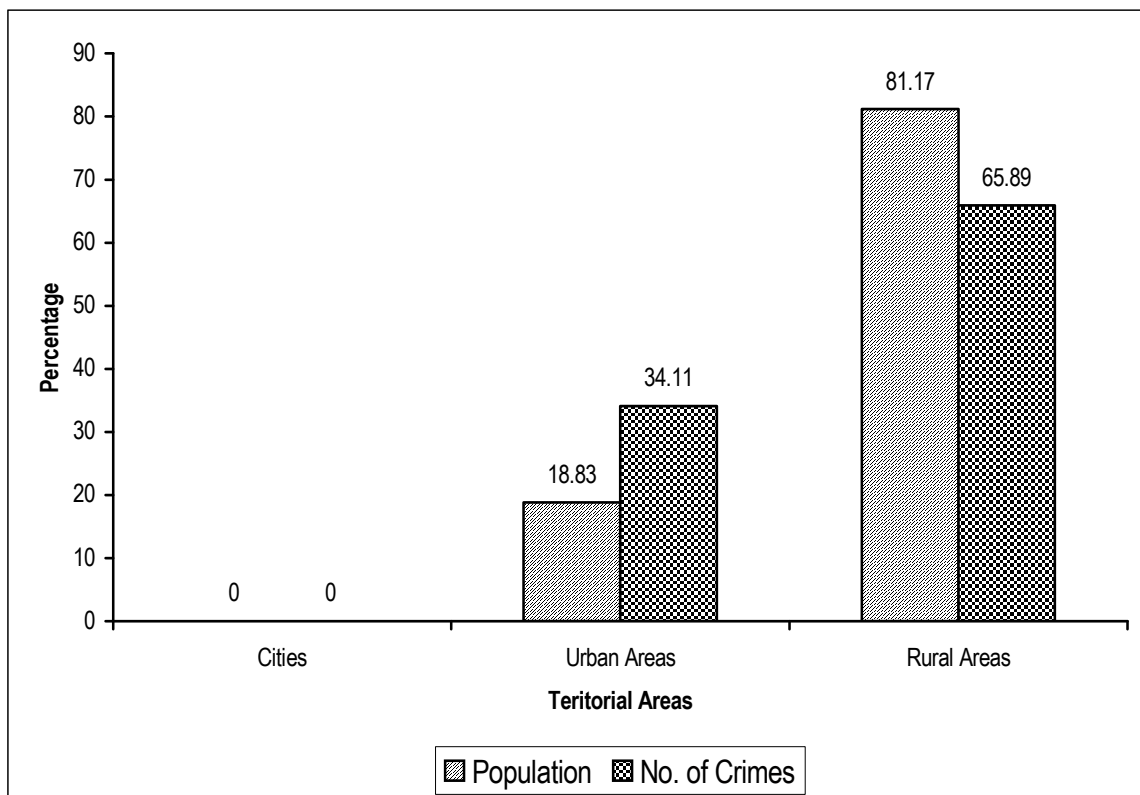


Figure 5.7. Spatial Spread of Crime in Nilgiris District



Coimbatore region had 75.63 lakh population as per 2001 census. The mean density of population worked out to be 418.76 persons per sq. km. Districts differed in their mean density. Coimbatore district had 565.47 persons per sq. km, the highest density in the region. Nilgiris district had the lowest density with 311.85 persons per sq. km. Erode district had just 315.37 persons per sq. km.

Regarding rural and urban composition also, there was considerable difference between the districts. The region had 69.8 per cent rural population. Among districts, Coimbatore district had only 59.48 rural populations. Erode had the highest percentage of rural population (83.36 per cent). Nilgiris district occupied a middle position with 81.17 per cent of population living in rural areas. This district had no city and its urban population was 18.83 per cent. Erode district had 11.97 per cent of its population living in cities and just 4.67 per cent of population living in other urban areas. In case of the Coimbatore district, the cities accounted for 30.06 percentage of the population and other urban centres had 10.46 percentage of the district's population.

Coming to cognizable crimes (Table 5.4 and Figures 5.5, 5.6 & 5.7), the region had 4268 recorded cases in the year 2002. As many as 7 out of 10 cases had been reported in Coimbatore district (68.98 per cent). Every fourth case was reported from Erode district (24.98 per cent).

Just 6.0 per cent of the cases had been reported in Nilgiris district. Thus the districts differed significantly in their share of cognizable offences.

Coimbatore region had 20.86 per cent of its population living in cities and 47.28 per cent of the cognizable offences were committed in cities. In other words cities recorded 2.26 times more crimes than its proportion of population. The urban areas in this region accounted for 9.34 per cent of its population. The percentage of cognizable crimes reported in urban areas constituted 13.05 per cent i.e., 1.4 times more than its population composition. In the case of rural areas where lived 69.8 per cent of the population, only 39.67 per cent of the cognizable crimes took place. In other words less than half of the proportion (0.56 times) of crimes occurred in rural areas. Therefore at the regional level, it was concluded that cities had considerably high incidents of crime and rural areas had low incidents of crime. Urban areas occupied a middle position with slightly above average incidents of crime.

The territorial areas considerably differed among districts. The bar diagrams and the table describe the variability among cities, urban areas and rural areas within the three districts. As could be seen in the table and bar diagram, in Coimbatore district, where 30.0 per cent of the people lived in cities, as high as 58.02 per cent of crimes took place. It means the cities had double percentage of crimes. The comparison shows that the number of crimes per 1000 population in cities were four times

higher than that of rural areas. In other urban areas, it was twice higher than rural areas.

In the case of Erode district where there was only one city, the population of the city was 11.97 per cent of the total population of the district. This city accounted for 310 out of 1066 cognizable criminal cases. It worked out to 29.08 per cent of the cases. This city had 2.4 times more criminals than the average. The other urban areas in Erode district accounted for 4.67 per cent of population and 13.42 per cent of crimes. For this small proportion of population, the numbers of criminal cases were very high. It worked out to four times higher than that of rural areas.

Nilgiris district accounted for only 6.04 per cent of the cognizable crimes recorded in the region. The rural and urban difference was also significant. Urban areas having 18.83 per cent of the population, accounted for 34.1 per cent of the cases. The rural areas with 81.2 per cent of population accounted for just 65.89 per cent of the crimes.

The analysis of territorial differences within districts indicates very wide disparity in Erode district followed by high difference in Coimbatore district and moderate difference in Nilgiris district. It is concluded that significant difference can be noticed among districts as well as territories of each district as far as population and crime are concerned. The spatial spread of population and crime incidence indicate the operation of environmental and ecological factors in bringing out variability. In terms of

density, higher the density, more the crimes are seen. In terms of territory, cities have very high incidents of crime followed by urban areas. Rural areas have very low incidents of crime. In spite of such differences in number of cases of criminality, the type of crime and the nature of criminals may throw more light on criminal behaviour. Therefore, in the subsequent chapters the researcher proposes to analyze various types of cognizable crimes such as property offences, grave offences and crimes against women and the nature of criminals involved in such criminal activities. In order to understand the nature of crimes, some specific cases that interested the researcher have been identified with the help of police officials and case studies were carried out. The names in the case studies were changed to maintain the anonymity of accused and victims.

CHAPTER 6

PROPERTY OFFENCES IN COIMBATORE REGION

(The Maps referred to in this chapter are given at the end of the dissertation in Appendix 2.)

All human beings have an inborn instinct to do some work and earn something for themselves. Law recognizes this liberal self-instinct in man and gives protection to it. Thus it is the fundamental right of an Indian citizen under Article 19(1) (f) of the Indian constitution “to acquire, hold and dispose property. Hence, it also follows that it is the primary duty and function of every state, to give protection to the property of individuals so as to justify its existence as state. Article 300 (A) of the Indian constitution lays down as a fundamental enforceable right of every person in India, that he should not be deprived of his property, save by the authority of law”. Indian Penal Code has amply provided effective sanctions to safeguard those interests of individuals in society. Indian Penal Code deals with offences against property, the sections of which may be divided into ten parts:

1. Theft under Indian Penal Code sections 378 to 382.
2. Extortion under Indian Penal Code sections 383 to 389.
3. Robbery and Dacoity under Indian Penal Code sections 390 to 402.
4. Criminal misappropriation under Indian Penal Code sections 403 to 404.

5. Criminal breach of trust under Indian Penal code sections 405 to 409.
6. Receiving stolen property under Indian Penal Code sections 410 to 414.
7. Cheating under Indian Penal Code sections 415 to 420.
8. Fraudulent deeds and dispositions of property under Indian Penal Code sections 421 to 424.
9. Mischief under Indian Penal Code sections 425 to 440.
10. Criminal trespass under Indian Penal Code sections 441 to 462.

Out of these property offences, the offences of theft, extortion, robbery, cheating, mischief, and criminal trespass are instances of dispossession of property in one's possession, while criminal misappropriation and breach of trust, and receiving stolen property are instances of wrongful conversion of property of which a person in relation to whom the offence is considered was already out of possession. The remaining offences, fraudulent deeds and dispossessions, have no relation to possession, though, if at all, it should probably be placed in instances of dispossession of property in one's possession. Possession gives the possessors the right to possess against everyone but the true owner. This definition of possession is consistent with the concept of larceny, which is the equivalent offence of theft under the common law of England. The present analysis of property crimes restricted to four major specified crimes under IPC such as theft, burglary, dacoity and robbery.

THEFT

Theft is the dishonest appropriation of property belonging to another with the intention of permanently depriving that person of it. The Indian Penal Code considers the following five elements to be present for an act to be considered as a theft: a) Movable property b) in the possession of any one c) a dishonest intention to take it out of that persons' possession, d) without his consent, and e) a moving in order to such taking.

Movable property is “corporeal property of every description except land and things attached to earth, or permanently fastened to anything which is attached to the earth”. The things attached to the land may become movable property by severance from the earth and that the act of severance itself will be theft.

Dishonest intention is the gist of the offence. It is the intention of the taker at the time when he removes the article that determines whether the act is theft or not. The intention to take dishonestly exists when the taker intends to cause wrongful gain to one person and wrongful loss to another. The intention to take dishonestly must exist at the time of the moving of the property.

The taking must be without the consent of the person in possession. There can be no theft where the owner actually consents to or authorizes the taking.

In addition to all the other ingredients, there must be moving of the property with a view to the taking of it. As the essence of the offence consists in the fraudulent taking, that taking must have commenced.

I. Theft

An act of theft is considered as an offence under the following Indian Penal Code sections:

Under section 378 of IPC, an act of moving a movable property of a person out of his possession without his consent and the moving being in order to take the property with the dishonest intention is considered to be a theft and an offence punishable. The punishment for such theft is imprisonment for 3 years or fine or both as per the section 379 of IPC.

II. Aggravated Forms of Theft

The offences of theft under IPC section 380 consist of theft in any building, tent or vessel used as a human dwelling or for custody of property. This section makes it more heinous to steal when the property is kept in building, tent or vessel as a human dwelling or for the custody of property. The section aims at affording greater security to property deposited in a house, etc. or kept in the abode of the owner. When the theft occurs in the premises of the owner, it is treated as an aggravated form, and the punishment is enhanced to imprisonment for 7 years and fine.

When the act of stealing is done by a servant/clerk of the master, section 381 of IPC prescribes punishment of 7 years imprisonment and fine. Further when the act of theft is carried out under threat of death or hurt of the possessor, and escaping with the property section 382 of IPC comes into operation providing imprisonment for 10 years or fine.

For instances, the cycles parked alone on the roadside committed theft by the offenders are punished under the IPC section 379. Similarly for snatching and pocket picking which occur commonly, the offenders are punished under section 379 of IPC.

For the offences like temple theft, house theft, where the properties like gold and hundial cash are stolen commonly, the accused are prosecuted under the section 380 of IPC.

The servants working in houses and offices steal away properties like jewels and cash from the owners. They are prosecuted under section 381 IPC. When the owner is threatened at the time of committing the act of theft, section 382 of IPC is used.

The present chapter on property offences studies the different types of thefts recorded in this region. The thefts that are largely committed in this region are pocket picking, snatching, vehicle thefts, temple thefts, servant thefts, house thefts, and cattle thefts. The chapter includes, theft rate in Coimbatore region during the year 2002, gender of the accused,

timings of theft, age of the accused, number of persons involved in each reported theft case, and types of property stolen in Coimbatore district, Erode district and Nilgiris district of Coimbatore region as well as its territorial areas namely, cities, urban areas and rural areas.

Thefts in Coimbatore Region

Theft is committed by thieves to take away property. Valuable things such as gold, cash, etc. are taken away by thieves without the knowledge of an individual or a group of individuals, through pocket picking, snatching, etc. Theft occurs mostly in houses, shops, public places such as commercial streets, buses, pavements, etc. The Indian Penal Code sections 378 to 382 are used by the police officials to file cases against the act of theft. The table 6.1 gives the theft rate in Coimbatore region for the population of the year 2002. Theft rate is also given for Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris districts of Coimbatore region, as well as for different territorial areas (city, urban and rural) of Coimbatore region.

Table 6.1
Thefts in Coimbatore Region – 2002

Particulars of Areas	Population	No. of Thefts	Theft Rate
Coimbatore District	4224107	2015	0.48
Erode District	2574067	619	0.24
Nilgiris District	764826	127	0.17
City Areas	1577664	1562	0.99

Urban Areas	706443	291	0.41
Rural Areas	5278893	908	0.17
Coimbatore Region	7563000	2761	0.37

The above table reveals that the theft rate is 0.37 in the Coimbatore region for the year 2002. When the three districts are compared, it could be seen that Coimbatore district has the highest theft rate of 0.48. Erode district has a higher theft rate of 0.24 than Nilgiris district, where the theft rate is only 0.17. In the territorial areas namely cities, urban, and rural places of the Coimbatore region, the theft rate is 0.99 in cities, which is very high. In urban areas, the theft rate is 0.41, which is higher than the rural areas where the theft rate is 0.17 for the year 2002.

Among the districts thefts are committed more in Coimbatore district due to the presence of densely populated cities (Coimbatore and Tiruppur) and urban areas in this district. In Coimbatore city alone (controlled by the Commissioner of Police), the number of thefts reported is 1067 (Figure 6.1) cases in the year 2002. So it could be seen that the crime rate is very high in Coimbatore when compared to Nilgiris and Erode districts. In Nilgiris district, the density of population is very low when compared to Coimbatore and Erode districts, and in this district people are from homogeneous group who live in harmonious relationship. They work in groups in the tea estates that are spread in and around their residential

places. People travel very less and consequently few thefts are reported from rural areas of this district. Thefts reported from urban areas, are mostly committed by thieves who disguised themselves as tourists.

Among the territorial areas of Coimbatore region the theft rates are high in cities and urban areas due to the presence of floating population. In crowded commercial streets, thefts like pocket picking, snatchings, and shopliftings are frequently committed. Moreover, vehicles are often left uncared on the roadsides by the people who go for their work, to purchase goods, etc., and this itself provides opportunity for thieves to steal vehicles in cities. In rural areas, people mostly work in the agricultural farms that are located near their houses. The mobility as well as anonymity of people is very low in rural areas when compared to city areas. So the thefts committed mostly by known offenders are dealt with local people themselves. Hence, the thefts reported to police officials are very low in number. Generally as said by Robert H. Gordon, for a variety of reasons, cities seem to produce and nurture more crimes than rural areas. One reason for the high urban crime rate is the pressure of slum or ghetto areas with their poverty, unemployment, and overcrowding – all conditions associated with crime⁸⁶.

In cities thefts like pocket picking, snatching, vehicle thefts, and shoplifting occur frequently. These offences are filed under section 379 IPC. Besides, thefts by domestic servants (381 IPC) and thefts from residential

⁸⁶ Robert H. Gordon, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 27-44.

houses (380 IPC) are frequently reported from urban areas. In rural areas, cattle thefts, (379, 381 IPC), bicycle thefts, thefts of temple possessions (380 IPC), and thefts of agricultural products (379, 381 IPC) are reported in large number.

Thefts Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore Region

The three districts of Coimbatore region are divided into different police subdivisional areas. Each police subdivision consists of a group of police stations. Coimbatore district (Figure 6.1) has eight police subdivisions namely, Avanashii, Tiruppur, Palladam, Udumalpet, Pollachi, Podhanur, and Periyanaickanpalayam. Coimbatore city area is also considered as a separate subdivisional area for the study which has twelve police stations under the control of the Commissioner of Police. The other subdivisions are controlled by the Superintendent of Police. The Erode district (Figure 6.2) has six police subdivisions namely, Erode town, Perundurai, Bhavani, Gobi, Sathy, and Dharapuram. The Nilgiris district (Figure 6.3) has five police subdivisional areas namely, Ooty, Ooty rural, Coonoor, Gudalur, and Devala. Number of thefts reported in the police subdivisions of each district are shown in the respective figures.

Figure 6.1. Thefts Reported in Coimbatore Police Subdivisions

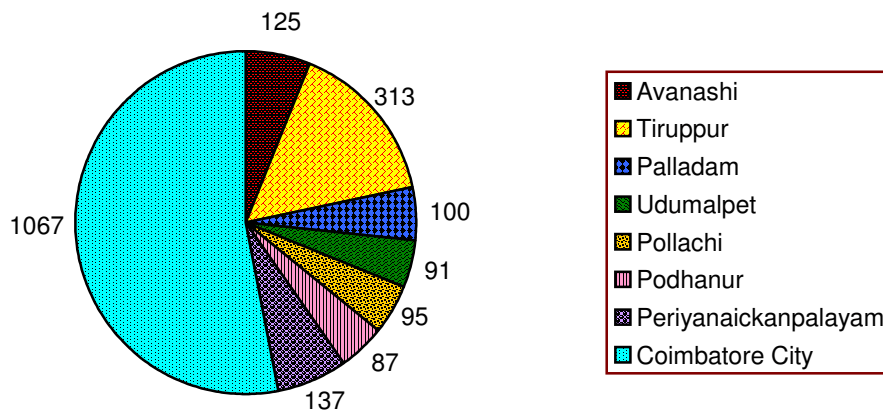


Figure 6.2. Thefts Reported in Erode Police Subdivisions

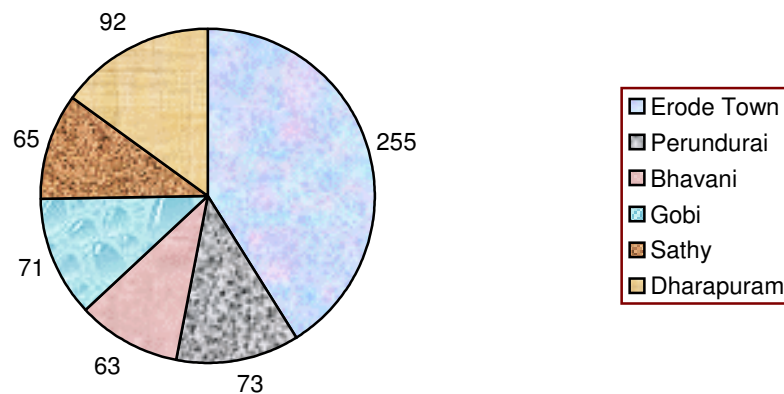
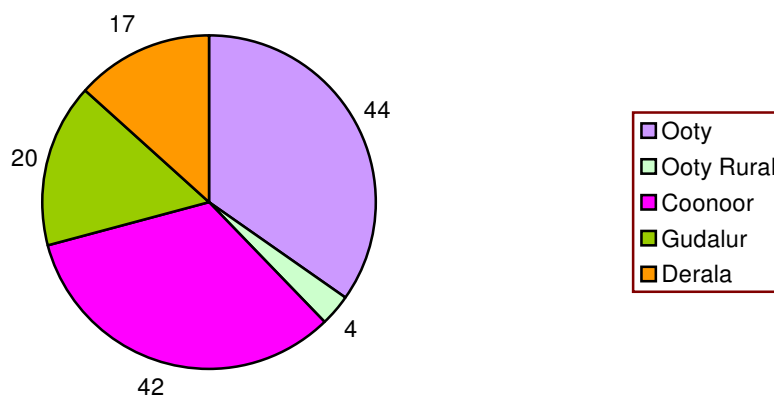


Figure 6.3. Thefts Reported in Nilgiris Police Subdivisions



Thefts Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District

Figure 6.1 shows the number of thefts reported in each police subdivision of Coimbatore district. Among the eight subdivisions, Coimbatore city has 1067 reported theft cases. The Coimbatore city, which is controlled by the commissioner of police, consists of 12 police stations (B₁ to B₁₂). The thefts are largely reported in the B₃ and B₄ stations of the Coimbatore city. The area limits of these two police stations cover bus stands, railway stations and crowded commercial streets where pocket picking, snatching, and vehicle thefts are committed in large number. Next to Coimbatore city, Tiruppur subdivision has reported 313 theft cases. This subdivision covers Tiruppur city which is famous for its hosiery industries. There are five police stations under this subdivision out of which three are within Tiruppur city and one is Tiruppur rural and the other is Mangalam station located in rural areas. Periyanaickanpalayam subdivision has 137 theft cases. There is one urban police station namely Mettupalayam. The remaining five are rural stations namely Sirumugai, Karamadai, Pillurdam, Papanackanpalayam, and Thudiyalur.

In the Avanashii subdivision, 125 theft cases have been reported. It covers seven rural police stations namely Avanashii, Cheyur, Perumanallur, Karumathampatti, Annur, and Kovilpalayam. Palladam subdivision covers five rural police stations namely Palladam,

Kumaranaickanpalayam, Avarampalayam, Negamam, and Sular; totally 100 thefts are reported in these stations.

Pollachi police subdivision has reported 95 theft cases. There are three urban stations namely Pollachi east, Pollachi west, and Mahalingapuram. The remaining seven are rural stations namely Pollachi taluk, Vadakkipalayam, Anaimalai, Kottur, Valparai, Mudis, and Kadamparai. Udumalpet police subdivision has reported 91 theft cases. There is one urban police station namely Udumalpet, and the remaining five are rural police stations namely Dhali, Gudimangalam, Gomangalam, Madathukulam, and Komaralingam. In the Podhanur police subdivision, 87 theft cases have been reported. There are two urban stations namely Podhanur and Madukkarai. The remaining seven are rural stations namely Chettipalayam, Perur, Thondamuthur, Vadavalli, Alandurai, Karunyanagar, and Kinathukaduvu.

Thefts Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District

Erode district has six police subdivisions (Figure 6.2) and forty four police stations. Erode town subdivision alone has recorded 255 theft cases out of 619 cases. This subdivision has four urban stations namely Erode town, Erode south, Erode north, and Karungalpalayam. The two rural stations are Erode rural and Modakuruchi. Dharapuram subdivision has recorded 92 theft cases. It has one urban police station namely Dharapuram and six rural police stations. They are Alangiyam, Kundadam,

Uthiyur, Kangayam, Vellakoil, and Mulanur. The next in importance is Perundurai subdivision accounting for 73 theft cases. It has nine rural police stations namely Perundurai, Kanjikoil, Uthukuli, Chennimalai, Vellode, Arachalur, Kodumudi, Sivagiri, and Malayampalayam. Gobi is the next important subdivision recording 71 theft cases. It has eight police stations of which Gobi alone is urban. The rural police stations are Siruvalur, Kavandapadi, Thingalur, Kunnathur, Nambiyur, Varapalayam, and Kadathur. Sathy with 65 cases of theft has seven rural police stations. They are Sathy, Thalavady, Hassanur, Banglapudhur, Kadambur, Puliampatti, and Bhavanisagar. Bhavani subdivision also has seven rural police stations and has recorded 63 cases of theft. The police stations are Bhavani, Appakoodal, Ammapet, Anthiyur, Vellithiruppur, Bargur, and Chithode.

Thefts Reported in Police Subdivisions of Nilgiris District

Nilgiris district has five police subdivisions (Figure 6.3) and has recorded 127 cases of thefts. Ooty subdivision has reported 44 cases of theft. This subdivision has two urban police stations, Ooty town central and Ooty town west. Ketty and Pudumandu are the two rural police stations in this subdivision. Coonoor subdivision has recorded 42 cases. It has seven police stations out of which one namely Coonoor town is an urban station. The remaining six namely, upper Coonoor, Wellington, Aravankadu, Kolacombai, Kotagiri and Sholurmattam are the rural stations. Gudalur

subdivision with 20 cases has five rural police stations. They are Gudalur, Newhope, Masinagudi, Devarsolai, and Naduvattam. Devala subdivision has registered 17 cases in its five rural police stations. They are Devala, Cherambadi, Erumandu, Nellakottai, and Ambalamoola. Though Ooty rural subdivision has four rural police stations, it has reported only 4 theft cases. The stations are Ooty rural, Denaducombai, Manjoor, and Emerald.

Timings of Thefts

Thefts are committed both during day and night in Coimbatore region. The table 6.2 gives the timings of thefts that have been committed in Coimbatore region. It is presented on the basis of districts as well as territories:

Table 6.2

Timings of Thefts Reported in Coimbatore Region

Particulars of Areas	Timings of Thefts Reported		Total No. of Cases	Timings Not Recorded	χ^2 value
	Day	Night			
Coimbatore District	1014 (53.1)	895 (46.9)	1909 (100.0)	106	5.7*
Erode District	330 (56.8)	251 (43.2)	581 (100.0)	38	
Nilgiris District	34 (43.6)	44 (56.4)	78 (100.0)	49	
City Areas	824 (55.6)	658 (44.4)	1482 (100.0)	80	10.7*
Urban Areas	149 (57.3)	111 (42.7)	260 (100.0)	31	
Rural Areas	405 (49.0)	421 (51.0)	826 (100.0)	82	
Coimbatore Region	1378 (53.7)	1190 (46.3)	2568 (100.0)	193	

* Significant at 5 per cent level

The above table shows that more than half (53.7 per cent) of the thefts have been committed during day and 46.3 per cent of the thefts during night in Coimbatore region. When the three districts of Coimbatore region are considered, in Erode district, out of 581 theft cases reported, 56.8 per cent of the thefts have been committed during day and 43.2 per cent during night. Similarly in Coimbatore district, more than half of the thefts (53.1 per cent) have been committed during day, whereas in Nilgiris district 56.4 per cent during night and remaining 43.6 per cent during day.

Regarding thefts, as high as 57.7 per cent are reported in city areas, followed by 32.2 per cent in rural areas, and the remaining 10.1 per cent in urban areas. Regarding timing there is a marked difference among different areas. In urban areas, 57.3 per cent of thefts have been committed during day. And in rural areas, 51.0 per cent of the thefts have been committed during night. The city areas occupy a middle position with 55.6 per cent during day and 44.4 per cent during night.

Significant difference in the percentage of occurrences of theft between day and night is reported both between district and territorial areas. When Chi-square test was applied, the variation among districts on the basis of the time of occurrence is statistically significant. Nilgiris district with high percentage of thefts by night and Erode district with high percentage of thefts by day speak for differences. Regarding territories more

number of thefts by night in rural areas and more number of thefts by day in urban areas account for significant differences.

The discussion clearly envisages that in Nilgiris district the thefts are committed largely during night. Because of chill weather, people settle down in their houses very early during night. This unnoticeable condition becomes convenient for the thieves to commit thefts easily. In cities and urban areas of Coimbatore region, thefts are committed largely during day due to the opportunity factors such as uncared vehicles parked on the road sides, near the bus stands and railway stations, and women wearing more jewels in the crowded places, etc.* In rural areas people mostly work in groups during day. So thefts are mostly committed by the thieves only during night. Greenberg and Rohe made a study to find the difference between defensible space theory and opportunity factor theory. This study favours the present research as the result supporting opportunity theory. The result is that low crime areas are more isolated from outsiders and contain fewer public activities and parking facilities⁸⁷.

Gender of the Accused in Thefts

Thefts are committed by both male and female offenders. The table 6.3 shows the number of men and women involved in thefts that are reported to the police officials in each police station of Coimbatore region. Frequency distribution of gender of the accused is also given in three

* The related case study is given as Case 1 at the end of this chapter.

⁸⁷ Greenberg and Rohe, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 48-61.

districts (Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris) as well as in three territorial areas (city, urban and rural) of Coimbatore region.

Table 6.3
Gender of the Accused in Theft Cases

Particulars of Areas	Gender of the Accused Reported			Total No. of Cases	Gender Not Recorded	χ^2 value
	Male	Female	Both			
Coimbatore District	1484 (98.6)	18 (1.2)	3 (0.2)	1505 (100.0)	510	6.1*
Erode District	484 (96.2)	14 (2.8)	5 (1.0)	503 (100.0)	116	
Nilgiris District	97 (99.0)	1 (1.0)	-	98 (100.0)	29	
City Areas	1216 (99.2)	8 (0.6)	2 (0.2)	1226 (100.0)	336	17.0*
Urban Areas	222 (96.1)	8 (3.5)	1 (0.4)	231 (100.0)	60	
Rural Areas	627 (96.6)	17 (2.6)	5 (0.8)	649 (100.0)	259	
Coimbatore Region	2065 (98.1)	33 (1.5)	8 (0.4)	2106 (100.0)	655	

* Significant at 5 per cent level.
(Coimbatore Vs Erode Districts)
(Rural Vs City, Urban Areas)

The above table indicates that very high proportion of about 98.1 per cent of the total thefts have been committed by men. While 1.5 per cent of the thefts have been committed by women, only 0.4 per cent of thefts by both men and women together in Coimbatore region. When the districts are compared, it is observed that as high as 98.6 per cent of the thefts in Coimbatore district, 96.2 per cent of thefts in Erode district, and 99.0 per

cent of the thefts in Nilgiris district that are reported have been committed by men. In Coimbatore district, only 1.2 per cent, in Erode district, 2.8 per cent, and in Nilgiris district, 1 per cent of the total reported thefts are committed by women. Thefts by both men and women together are meager in number i.e., 0.2 per cent in Coimbatore District and 1.0 per cent in Erode District.

In all the three territories namely city, urban, and rural areas more than three-fourths of the thefts are committed by men. In rural areas women are involved in 17 cases of the total thefts, whereas in city and urban areas women involvement is noticed in 8 theft cases each. Only very few thefts i.e., 5 out of 649 thefts in rural areas, 2 out of 1226 thefts in city areas and 1 out of 231 thefts in urban areas, have been committed by both men and women together.

The calculated chi-square value 6.1 shows that there is a significant difference among the three districts namely, Coimbatore, Erode, and Nilgiris, and the gender of the accused in reported theft cases. Similar result has been observed among territories of Coimbatore region, which shows the calculated Chi-square value 17.0 which is greater than the table value. So there is a significant difference among the city, urban and rural areas and the gender of the accused in these areas.

Thefts committed by women that are reported in the police stations of each territorial area are mostly servant thefts (Section 381 IPC). In urban and

city areas, women working in houses as maid servants and in shops for daily wages commit thefts like lifting cash and ornaments. Similarly in rural areas some of the women landless agricultural labourers commit thefts and they are not professional thieves; they often commit thefts without any pre-plan.

Number of the Accused in Thefts

The property offences are committed by one or more members in Coimbatore region. The following table (6.4) gives the number of the accused involved in each theft case that is reported during the year 2002 in Coimbatore region. The number of the accused who have committed thefts in three districts (Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris) as well as in three territories (city, urban and rural) of Coimbatore region are also given in the table.

Table 6.4
Number of the Accused in Theft Cases

Particulars of Areas	No. of the Accused Reported				Total No. of Cases	Mean No. of the Accused	Accused Not Recorded	χ^2 value
	1	2	3	4 and above				
Coimbatore District	1046 (69.5)	331 (22.0)	118 (7.8)	10 (0.7)	1505 (1000)	1.4	510	17.7*
Erode District	382 (75.9)	104 (20.7)	13 (2.6)	4 (0.8)	503 (100.0)	1.3	116	
Nilgiris District	62 (63.3)	24 (24.5)	10 (10.2)	2 (2.0)	98 (100.0)	1.5	29	
City Areas	855 (69.7)	289 (23.6)	75 (6.1)	7 (0.6)	1226 (100.0)	1.4	336	5.3
Urban Areas	193 (83.5)	24 (10.4)	12 (5.2)	2 (0.9)	231 (100.0)	1.2	60	

Rural Areas	442 (68.1)	146 (22.5)	54 (8.3)	7 (1.1)	649 (100.0)	1.4	259	
Coimbatore Region	1490 (70.8)	459 (21.8)	141 (6.6)	16 (0.8)	2106 (100.0)	1.5	655	

* Significant at 5 per cent level.

It is given in the above table that the mean number of the accused involved in the act of theft is 1.5 persons in Coimbatore region. When the three districts of Coimbatore region are compared, the mean number of the accused involved in thefts in Nilgiris district shows the highest, i.e., 1.5 persons. Coimbatore district has the mean number of 1.4 persons, which is higher than the mean number (1.3 persons) in Erode district.

The mean number of the accused is 1.4 persons in city and rural areas of Coimbatore region, which is higher than the mean number of (1.2 persons) the accused in urban areas of Coimbatore region. To test whether there is difference in the number of the accused in different districts as well as in territorial areas, the accused are categorised as less number (up to two) and more number (3 and more). The calculated Chi-square value 17.7 is greater than the table value at 5 per cent level of significance. Hence, there is a significant difference among the districts and the number of the accused who have committed thefts. In case of territorial areas, the difference in the number of the accused is not significant. Hence, there is no difference among territorial areas regarding the number of accused in theft cases.

The discussion clearly envisages that in all the three districts, single person has involved in large number of thefts like pocket picking, snatching, bicycle or moppet thefts. These types of thefts are highly found in city, urban and in few places of rural areas. Vehicles that are parked on the roadsides of the crowded places are frequently stolen and these offences are mostly committed by a single individual in city and urban areas. Snatching happens both in the overcrowded places of city and urban areas and lonely places of rural areas, where nobody could notice the thieves. Four wheelers like cars and lorries which are parked on roadsides, are often stolen by two or more than two individuals, and these types of thefts mostly happen in city and rural areas. Cash thefts are also easily committed by a single individual when the windows of the locked houses or shops are kept open in the city and urban areas.

Age of the Accused in Thefts

Age is not a barrier in involving theft. It has been committed by different age group members. In each district the age of the accused is classified into 5 groups namely, young who are in the age group upto 20 years, youths in the age group of 21 to 25 years, adults 26 to 30 years, grown up adults 31 to 40 years, and old persons above 41 years. Based on the age group classification, the frequency distribution of the accused in theft cases in three districts (Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris) and in three

territorial areas (city, urban and rural) of Coimbatore region is furnished in the table 6.5.

Table 6.5
Age Distribution of the Accused in Theft Cases

Particulars of Areas	Classification on the Basis of Age					Total No. of Accused	Mean Age	Accused Age not Recorded	χ^2 Value
	Young upto 20 yrs	Youth 21-25 yrs	Adult 26-30 yrs	Grown up Adults 31-40 yrs	Old Persons 41 & above yrs				
Coimbatore District	440 (20.9)	715 (34.0)	500 (23.8)	370 (17.6)	78 (3.7)	2103 (100.0)	26.2	510	50.63*
Erode District	85 (13.2)	247 (38.3)	126 (19.5)	139 (21.6)	48 (7.4)	645 (100.0)	28.7	116	
Nilgiris District	23 (15.5)	41 (27.8)	35 (23.6)	37 (25.0)	12 (8.1)	148 (100.0)	28.8	29	
City Areas	325 (19.3)	618 (36.6)	381 (22.6)	307 (18.2)	56 (3.3)	1687 (100.0)	26.1	336	31.96*
Urban Areas	43 (15.1)	110 (38.6)	63 (22.1)	50 (17.5)	19 (6.7)	285 (100.0)	27.3	60	
Rural Areas	180 (19.5)	275 (29.8)	217 (23.5)	189 (20.4)	63 (6.8)	924 (100.0)	26.9	259	
Coimbatore Region	548 (18.9)	1003 (34.6)	661 (22.8)	546 (18.9)	138 (4.8)	2896 (100.0)	26.3	655	

* Significant at 5 per cent level.

The table above reveals that in Coimbatore region the mean age of the accused in theft cases is 26.3 years. Among the three districts, Erode and Nilgiris have the highest mean age of the accused i.e., 28.7 years and 28.8 years respectively, whereas the Coimbatore district shows the lowest mean age of the accused i.e., 26.2 years.

When the territories of Coimbatore region are compared, urban areas show the highest mean age of the accused i.e., 27.3 years. Rural areas have 26.9 years as the mean age of the accused, which is slightly higher

than city areas i.e., 26.1 years, but lower than urban areas. The calculated Chi-square value is 50.63, which is greater than the table value. Hence, there is a significant difference among the three districts and the age of the accused who have committed thefts in these three districts of Coimbatore region. Similarly in the territories also the calculated Chi-square value i.e., 31.96 is greater than the table value. So there is a significant difference among city, urban and rural areas and the age of the accused in these areas.

The discussion with police officials envisages that in Coimbatore and Erode districts thefts are largely committed by youths, in the age group of 21 to 25 years, which are not so in Nilgiris district. This is because the city areas in Coimbatore and Erode districts are reported with large number of thefts committed by youths and next to it, adult age group people. In city and urban areas, the youth, who migrated for employment opportunities, live in large number in nearby slum areas. Most of them are either unemployed or underemployed. For their livelihood, some of them indulge in thefts. Likewise in rural areas also the thefts are committed by youths and adults. This is due to the paucity of agricultural income and unemployment. Even, if they migrate to suburban or agglomerated areas for construction and contract works, they suffer from insufficient income, which makes them indulge in petty thefts for their livelihood. However Fox in his study about the rate of crime using temporal data in the United States found that the population between the age group of eighteen and twenty-one year was

significantly related to the violent crime rate, and the population between the age group of fourteen and seventeen years was significantly related to the property crime rate⁸⁸.

Types of Property Stolen by Thieves

Table 6.6 gives the types of properties stolen by the thieves that are reported in the police stations of each district in Coimbatore region during the year 2002. The stolen properties are classified into ten categories namely, vehicle theft, cash theft, jewels theft, electric goods theft, domestic goods theft, cash and other properties theft, cattle theft, machine theft, and the theft of unclassified properties.

Table 6.6
Types of Property Stolen by Thieves in Coimbatore Region

	Types of Property	Particulars of Areas						Coimbatore Region
		Districts			Territories			
		Coimbatore District	Erode District	Nilgiris District	City Areas	Urban Areas	Rural Areas	
a)	Cycle	336	47	4	334	15	38	387
b)	Two wheeler	658	229	25	522	95	295	912
c)	Four wheeler	30	8	9	21	9	17	47
I	Vehicle Theft	1024 (50.8)	284 (45.9)	38 (29.9)	877 (56.1)	119 (40.9)	350 (38.5)	1346 (48.7)
a)	Cash lift	44	19	14	29	23	25	77
b)	Pocket picking	493	136	2	441	55	135	631
II	Cash Theft	537 (26.7)	155 (25.0)	16 (12.6)	470 (30.1)	78 (26.8)	160 (17.6)	708 (25.6)
a)	Snatching	154	48	9	128	23	60	211
b)	Temple theft	17	2	-	8	4	7	19
III	Jewels Theft	171 (8.5)	50 (8.1)	9 (7.1)	136 (8.7)	27 (9.3)	67 (7.4)	230 (8.3)
a)	Electric wires	94	29	10	12	10	11	133
b)	Electric appliances	71	29	7	28	16	63	107
IV	Electric Goods Theft	165 (8.2)	58 (9.4)	17 (13.4)	40 (2.6)	26 (8.9)	174 (19.2)	240 (8.7)

⁸⁸ Fox *Op. Cit.*

a)	Vessels	3	1	2	2	1	3	6
b)	Clothes	17	2	3	11	5	6	22
c)	Groceries	2	3	1	2	-	4	6
d)	Oil	-	11	-	-	-	11	11
e)	Gas cylinder	4	-	-	2	-	2	4
V	Domestic Goods Theft	26 (1.3)	17 (2.7)	6 (4.7)	17 (1.1)	6 (2.1)	26 (2.9)	49 (1.8)
a)	Garden produce	9	4	3	-	2	14	16
b)	Wood	-	-	6	-	1	5	6
c)	Tea & aromatic leaves	-	-	2	-	-	2	2
VI	Agricultural Products Theft	9 (0.4)	4 (0.6)	11 (8.7)	-	3 (1.0)	21 (2.3)	24 (0.9)
a)	Vehicle & cash	3	-	-	1	-	2	3
b)	Gold & cash	-	1	1	-	-	2	2
c)	E. goods & cash	-	-	2	-	-	2	2
VII	Cash & Other Property Theft	3 (0.1)	1 (0.2)	3 (2.4)	1 (0.1)	-	6 (0.7)	7 (0.3)
VIII	Cattle Theft	36 (1.8)	27 (4.4)	1 (0.8)	6 (0.4)	15 (5.2)	43 (4.7)	64 (2.3)
IX	Machines Theft	5 (0.2)	-	5 (3.9)	2 (0.1)	-	8 (0.9)	10 (0.4)
X	Unclassified	39 (1.9)	23 (3.7)	21 (16.5)	13 (0.8)	17 (5.8)	53 (5.8)	83 (3.0)
	Total	2015 (100.0)	619 (100.0)	127 (100.0)	1562 (100.0)	291 (100.0)	908 (100.0)	2761 (100.0)

It could be seen in the above table that in Coimbatore region out of 2761 thefts that are reported, nearly half (48.7 per cent) of them come under vehicle thefts, and it is followed by cash thefts, which constitutes one-fourth (25.6 per cent) of the total thefts. Apart from that, 8.7 per cent and 8.3 per cent of the thefts come under the thefts of electric goods and jewels respectively.

When the types of property stolen in the three districts namely Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris are compared, it is clear that vehicle thefts are larger in number, and it constitutes 50.8 per cent in Coimbatore, 45.9

per cent in Erode, and 29.9 per cent in Nilgiris. While thefts of cash constitute the second place in Coimbatore (26.7 per cent) and Erode (25.0 per cent) districts, thefts of electric goods come as second (13.4 per cent) in Nilgiris district. Jewels (8.5 per cent in Coimbatore), electric goods (9.4 per cent in Erode), and cash (12.6 per cent in Nilgiris) are the third largest properties stolen in the three districts. Moreover, thefts of electric goods (8.2 per cent in Coimbatore), thefts of jewels (8.1 per cent in Erode), and thefts of agricultural products (8.7 per cent in Nilgiris) occupy the fourth place. Percentage variations in the other types of properties stolen also can be seen in all the three districts.

When the territories of Coimbatore region are compared, it could be seen that in city areas vehicles like bicycles, and two wheelers have been stolen in 56.1 per cent of the reported cases. Another 30.1 per cent are for cash theft. Theft of jewels are reported in 8.7 per cent of the cases. In urban areas also 40.9 per cent of the theft cases are reported for stolen vehicles. Theft of cash are reported in 26.8 per cent of the cases. Jewel thefts constitute 9.3 per cent, electric goods 8.9 per cent, cattle 5.2 per cent, domestic goods 2.1 per cent, and agricultural products theft, 1.0 per cent. In the rural areas also as high as 38.5 per cent of the thefts are committed for vehicles. Electric goods are stolen in 19.2 per cent of the theft cases. Theft of cash are reported in 17.6 per cent of the cases and thefts of cattle in 4.7 per cent of cases.

To conclude in all the three districts, vehicles are stolen in large number. Next come the thefts of cash. Cash is stolen along with other properties like electric goods, jewels, and vehicles. Thefts of jewels stood at the third place in Coimbatore district, whereas in Erode and Nilgiris districts, electric goods stood at third place. In city, urban, and rural areas also, vehicles, cash, jewels and electric goods are largely stolen. Apart from that, in rural areas, cattle and agricultural produces are stolen in addition to cash, vehicles, and jewels.

BURGLARY

Burglar is any person who enters a building or a part of a building as a trespasser with an intent to steal or commit damage. A person who enters any building as a trespasser, steals, attempts to steal is guilty of an offence.

Criminal trespass is known in English law as “forcible entry”. In India criminal trespasser is defined as “A person who commits criminal trespass” if he

1. enters into or upon property in the possession of another.
2. enters with intent to commit an offence or to intimidate, to insult or annoy any person in possession of such property or,

3. enters lawfully into or upon such property, but unlawfully remains there a) with intent thereby to intimidate, insult or annoy such person or b) with intent to commit an offence.

Criminal trespasses are committed in different forms under various circumstances. Based on its nature of occurrence the offenders of such act are punished with imprisonment under Indian Penal Code sections. Different types of criminal trespass that occur are 1. House-trespass, 2. Aggravated forms of House-trespass, 3. Lurking House-trespass, 4. House breaking, 5. Aggravated forms of the offence of lurking house-trespass or house-breaking, and 6. Aggravated forms of offence “lurking house-trespass by night and house breaking by night”.

I. House-Trespass

House-trespass is when a person commits a criminal trespass (forcible entry) by entering into or remaining in

- a) any building, tent or vessel used as human dwelling, or
- b) any building, used as a place of worship, or
- c) any place for the custody of property.

Thus any part of the criminal trespasser’s body entering is sufficient to constitute house-trespass under the Indian Penal Code section 442. Moreover imprisonment for the offenders is for one year or a fine of Rs. 1000 or both under IPC section 448.

II. Aggravated Forms of House-Trespass

An act of the house-trespass becomes aggravated offence based on the seriousness of the act. Various sections are used to punish the offenders involved in aggravated forms of house-trespass.

The IPC section 449 that enhances imprisonment for life or rigorous imprisonment for 10 years and fine is used for the house-trespass in order to commit an offence that is punishable with death. The punishment with imprisonment for 10 years and fine under IPC section 450 is used for the house-trespass (forcible entry into the house) in order to commit an offence that is punishable with imprisonment for life. If the house-trespass is to commit an offence that is punishable with imprisonment, the punishment under IPC section 451 is imprisonment for 7 years and fine. For house-trespass after preparation for causing hurt, assault or wrongful restraint to any person or for putting any person in fear of hurt, assault or wrongful restraint, the punishment is imprisonment for 7 years and fine under IPC section 452.

III. Lurking House-Trespass

Lurking house-trespass is a trespass after taking precautions to conceal such house-trespass from some person who has a right to exclude, or eject the trespasser from the building, tent or vessel which is the subject

of trespass under IPC section 443. The punishment for the offenders could be imprisonment for 2 years and fine under IPC section 453.

Whoever commits lurking house-trespass after sunset and before sunrise is said to commit “lurking house-trespass by night” under IPC section 444. The punishment could extend to 3 years and fine for offenders under the IPC section 456.

IV. House Breaking

A person is said to commit “house breaking” who commits house-trespass

1. if he effects his entrance into the house or any part of it or,
2. if, being in the house, or any part of it for the purpose of committing an offence, or having committed an offence, therein, he quits the house or any part of it.

For instance, a person commits house-trespass by entering the house by opening the door, which is fastened. This is house-breaking under IPC section 445. And the punishment is imprisonment for 2 years and fine under IPC section 453.

V. Aggravated Forms of the Offence of Lurking House-Trespass or House-Breaking

For lurking house-trespass or house-breaking offence intended to commit theft, the punishment is imprisonment for 10 years and fine.

Otherwise the punishment is imprisonment for 3 years and fine under IPC section 454 for lurking house-trespass or house-breaking after preparation made for causing hurt, assault or wrongful restraint, the punishment is imprisonment for 10 years and fine under IPC section 455. Under IPC section 459 the imprisonment is for life or imprisonment for 10 years and fine for causing grievous hurt, or attempting to cause death or grievous hurt to any person whilst committing lurking house-trespass or house-breaking.

VI. Aggravated Forms of Offence: “Lurking House-Trespass by Night and House-Breaking by Night”

For lurking house-trespass or house-breaking by night, the punishment under IPC section 456 is imprisonment for 3 years and fine. For lurking house-trespass or house-breaking by night intended to commit theft, the punishment is imprisonment for 14 years and fine. Otherwise the imprisonment is for 5 years and fine under IPC section 457. Lurking house-trespass or house-breaking by night after preparation for causing hurt, assault or wrongful restraint is punished with imprisonment for 14 years and fine under IPC section 458. For voluntarily causing, or attempting to cause, death or grievous hurt to any person at the time of committing lurking house-trespass or house-breaking by night, the punishment is imprisonment for life or imprisonment for 10 years and fine under IPC section 460.

The present chapter focuses on both house breaking by night and house breaking by day. The chapter includes burglary rate in Coimbatore

region during the year 2002, gender of the accused who committed burglary, timings of burglary, age of the accused, number of persons involved in each reported burglary case, types of property burglered in Coimbatore district, Erode district and Nilgiris district of Coimbatore region as well as the territorial areas namely city, urban, and rural places.

Burglaries in Coimbatore Region

Burglary is an offence committed by breaking the doors or windows of houses, shops, etc. for stealing the property. The properties are taken away by the burglars by damaging the buildings, and sometimes by threatening the house members. The burglary cases are filed under the Indian Penal Code sections 454/380 IPC (Day Burglary) and 457/380 IPC (Night Burglary). The table 6.7 gives the number of burglary cases that are reported in the year 2002. The table contains the rate of burglary in Coimbatore region on the whole, the three districts (Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris) of Coimbatore region as well as the cities, urban, and rural areas of Coimbatore region.

Table 6.7
Burglaries in Coimbatore Region – 2002

Particulars of Areas	Population	No. of Burglaries	Burglary Rate
Coimbatore District	4224107	525	0.12
Erode District	2574067	212	0.08
Nilgiris District	764826	85	0.11
City Areas	1577664	286	0.18
Urban Areas	706443	142	0.20
Rural Areas	5278893	394	0.07

Coimbatore Region	7563000	822	0.11
-------------------	---------	-----	------

As given in the table, the burglary rate is 0.11 in Coimbatore region. When the three districts of Coimbatore region are compared, the burglary rate is high in Coimbatore district (0.12). Next to Coimbatore district, Nilgiris district has the higher burglary rate (0.11) than the Erode district that has the lowest burglary rate of 0.08. It could be seen that the urban areas show the highest burglary rate of 0.20. Next to urban areas, cities have higher burglary rate of 0.18 followed by the rural areas where the burglary rate is 0.07.

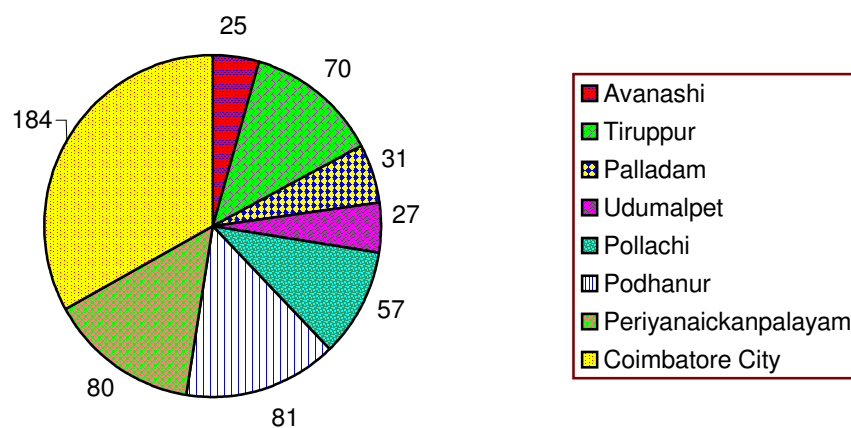
In Erode district the land areas are mostly covered with urban and rural population. The people in rural areas live for generations together in a particular place where they know each other as friends, relatives or neighbours. So when an unknown person enters the house for burglary, he could be identified and captured easily with the help of nearby residing people. Hence, the reported burglary cases in rural areas of Erode district are low, whereas in Nilgiris district the burglaries are more, as it could be easy to commit them in the lonely houses that are located between the tea and coffee plantations. The Coimbatore district shows the highest burglary rate because of the presence of densely populated city and urban areas. In the residential areas of city and urban places, people leave their houses for work to far off places. So the burglaries are committed more often in urban residential areas than in rural village areas. The result of the present study is supported by the study of Rencek who found that in U.S.A., San Diego

blocks with large populations, high population densities, and many apparent buildings had high rates of crime⁸⁹.

Burglaries Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore Region

Burglary committed in any of the territorial (city, urban and rural) areas reported in the police station, come under the particular police subdivisional area of a district. Figures 6.4, 6.5 and 6.6 show the number of burglaries reported in police subdivisions of districts namely, Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris of Coimbatore region.

Figure 6.4. Burglaries Reported in Coimbatore Police Subdivisions



⁸⁹ Rencek, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 77-96.

Figure 6.5. Burglaries Reported in Erode Police Subdivisions

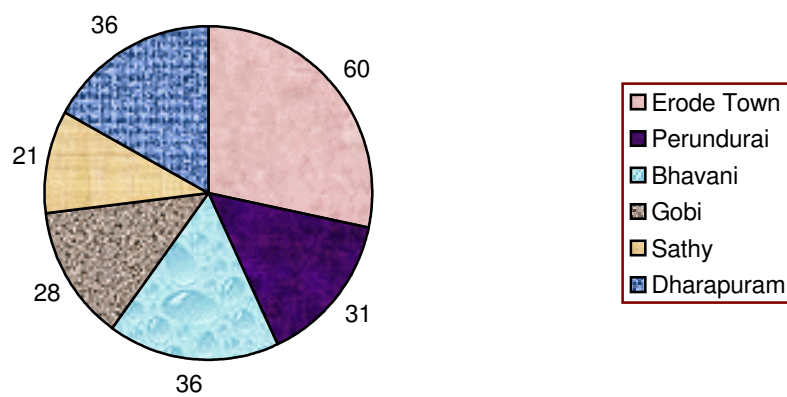
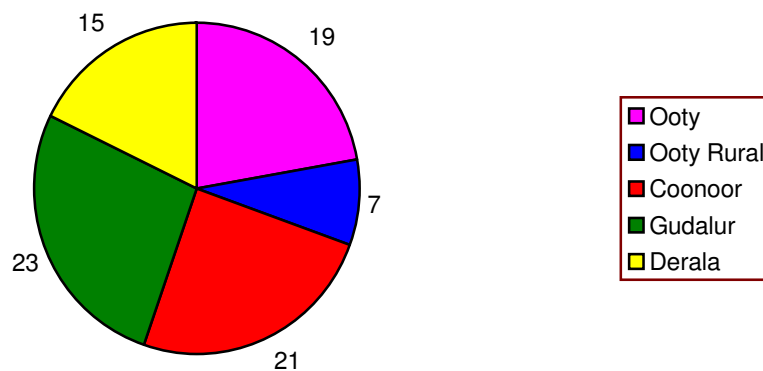


Figure 6.6. Burglaries Reported in Nilgiris Police Subdivisions



ations that come under police subdivisions of Coimbatore district are shown. The Coimbatore city has 184 reported burglary cases. Next to it Podhanur subdivision has 81 reported burglary cases. This subdivision covers urban agglomerated areas that are extended in the outskirts of Coimbatore city. The middle and the upper class family members who live in this area often move to the city area for their work, so the burglaries happen more in locked houses of this area. Chockalingam in his study on crime victimization in four major cities of Tamil Nadu namely Chennai, Coimbatore, Madurai, and Trichy has also found the same result that burglary victims seem to be more in the middle residential area status respondents and the higher class, probably because of their increased possessions at house⁹⁰. Tiruppur subdivision is covered mostly with city areas; it has 70 reported burglary cases. The other subdivisions are covered mostly with rural areas, where agriculture is the major occupation of the people. They work mostly near their residential areas and the mobility of people to far off places is less; so the burglaries reported are also less in number i.e., 57 reported cases in Pollachi, 50 cases in Periyanaickanpalayam, 31 cases in Palladam, 27 cases in Udumalpet, and 25 cases in Pollachi.

Burglaries reported in the police subdivisions of Erode district is shown in figure 6.5. Out of 212 reported burglary cases all over the district, Erode town alone has 60 burglary cases. In Bhavani and Dharapuram

⁹⁰ Chockalingam, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 23-29.

subdivision, 36 burglaries in each subdivision are reported. In Dharapuram station alone that covers urban area, it could be seen that 15 burglaries are reported. In the other subdivisions, namely Perundurai, Gobi, and Sathy, only 31, 28 and 21 burglaries are reported respectively.

In the Nilgiris district as it is shown in figure 6.6, 85 burglaries are reported. In Gudalur subdivision it could be seen that as high as 23 burglary offences are reported. Next to it in Coonoor subdivision 21 burglaries are reported. In Ooty subdivision 19 burglaries are reported. In the other two subdivisional areas, only few burglaries are reported i.e., 15 cases in Devala and 7 cases in Ooty rural. In Coonoor and Gudalur, the places are covered with large residential areas whereas in Ooty, the places are mostly covered with tourists spots, so less number of burglaries are reported in this area.

Timings of Burglaries

Burglaries in Coimbatore region are committed both during day and night. The table 6.8 gives the number of burglaries reported to the police officials in the three districts (Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris) of Coimbatore region. The table also gives the timings of burglaries committed in the territories (city, urban, and rural) of Coimbatore region.

Table 6.8
Timings of Burglaries Reported in Coimbatore Region

Particulars of Areas	Timings of Burglaries Reported	Total	Timings	χ^2
----------------------	--------------------------------	-------	---------	----------

	Day	Night	No. of Cases	Not Recorded	value
Coimbatore District	121 (23.4)	396 (76.6)	517 (100.0)	8	3.07
Erode District	37 (17.5)	174 (82.5)	211 (100.0)	1	
Nilgiris District	18 (22.8)	61 (77.2)	79 (100.0)	6	
City Areas	69 (24.6)	212 (75.4)	281 (100.0)	5	3.15
Urban Areas	31 (22.1)	109 (77.9)	140 (100.0)	2	
Rural Areas	76 (19.7)	310 (80.3)	386 (100.0)	8	
Coimbatore Region	176 (21.8)	631 (78.2)	807 (100.0)	15	

* Significant at 5 per cent level.

It is observed from the above table that in Coimbatore region, out of 807 burglary cases reported, 78.2 per cent of them have been committed during night. Similarly when all the three districts of Coimbatore region are compared, it shows that more than three-fourth (76.6 per cent in Coimbatore, 82.5 per cent in Erode, and 77.2 per cent in Nilgiris) of the burglaries have been committed only during night.

Among the territorial areas of Coimbatore region, it could be seen that in the rural areas as high as 80.3 per cent of the burglaries have been committed during night and 19.7 per cent during day. Three-fourths of the burglaries in urban (77.9 per cent) and city areas (75.4 per cent) have been committed during night and nearly one-fourth of the burglaries during day in both city and urban areas. The burglaries committed during day and night in

districts and in territorial areas are tested with Chi-square. The calculated value is 3.07 for districts and 3.15 for territories. Since the calculated Chi-square value is far less than the table value, it is concluded that among districts and territories, variation in the timings of burglary is not statistically significant.

To conclude, even though burglaries occur both during day and night, the number of burglaries are more only during night in all the three districts and three territorial areas of Coimbatore region.

Gender of the Accused in Burglaries

Burglary is committed at a great risk by breaking away the doors and windows of the houses, shops, factories, etc. Sometimes women also commit burglary. The table 6.9 gives the burglaries committed by male, female or both in the three districts (Coimbatore, Nilgiris and Erode) of Coimbatore region, as well the three territorial areas of Coimbatore region.

Table 6.9
Gender of the Accused in Burglary Cases

Particulars of Areas	Gender of the Accused Reported			Total No. of Cases	Gender Not Recorded
	Male	Female	Both		
Coimbatore District	283 (99.0)	3 (1.0)	-	286 (100.0)	239
Erode District	96 (97.0)	2 (2.0)	1 (1.0)	99 (100.0)	113

Nilgiris District	37 (97.4)	1 (2.6)	-	38 (100.0)	47
City Areas	175 (99.4)	1 (0.6)	-	176 (100.0)	110
Urban Areas	59 (95.2)	3 (4.8)	-	62 (100.0)	80
Rural Areas	182 (98.4)	2 (1.1)	1 (0.5)	185 (100.0)	209
Coimbatore Region	416 (98.4)	6 (1.4)	1 (0.2)	423 (100.0)	399

It is obvious from the above table that as high as 98.4 per cent of the burglaries have been committed by men in Coimbatore region. Only 1.4 per cent of the burglaries by women. Both man and woman together committed burglary in only one case reported in Coimbatore region. Among the districts 99.0 per cent of the burglaries in Coimbatore district, 97.0 per cent in Erode district, and 97.4 per cent in Nilgiris district have also been committed by men. Only 3 burglaries in Coimbatore, 2 in Erode and 1 in Nilgiris have been committed by women. And in only one burglary case that is reported in Erode district, both a man and a woman are involved.

The same trend is seen when the researcher analyses the burglaries reported in city, urban and rural areas of Coimbatore region. Of the total burglaries as high as 99.4 per cent in city areas, 98.4 per cent in rural areas, and 95.2 per cent in urban areas, have been committed by men. Cressy and Sutherland in their study found that in developing countries like India and Sri Lanka in the 1970s male made up over

95 per cent of convicted offenders, whereas the male share in many western countries is closer to 80 per cent⁹¹.

Number of the Accused in Burglaries

Burglary is often committed by one or more persons. The table 6.10 gives the number of burglars involved in burglaries that are reported in the Coimbatore region, which consists of three districts namely, Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris as well as the city, urban, and rural places.

⁹¹ Cressy and Sutherland, *Op. Cit.*

Table 6.10
Number of the Accused in Burglary Cases

Particulars of Areas	No. of the Accused Reported				Total No. of Cases	Mean No. of the Accused	Accused Not Recorded	χ^2 value
	1	2	3	4 and above				
Coimbatore District	193 (67.5)	70 (24.5)	10 (3.5)	13 (4.5)	286 (100.0)	1.5	239	2.3
Erode District	73 (73.7)	13 (13.1)	9 (9.1)	4 (4.1)	99 (100.0)	1.3	113	
Nilgiris District	30 (78.9)	4 (10.5)	3 (7.9)	1 (2.6)	38 (100.0)	1.4	47	
City Areas	110 (62.5)	44 (25.0)	12 (6.8)	10 (5.7)	176 (100.0)	1.6	110	6.3*
Urban Areas	44 (70.9)	10 (16.1)	4 (6.5)	4 (6.5)	62 (100.0)	1.5	80	
Rural Areas	142 (76.8)	33 (17.8)	6 (3.2)	4 (2.2)	185 (100.0)	1.3	209	
Coimbatore Region	296 (69.9)	87 (20.6)	22 (5.2)	18 (4.3)	423 (100.0)	1.5	399	

* Significant at 5 per cent level.

It is observed from the above table that the mean number of the accused in burglary cases is 1.5 persons in Coimbatore region. Among the three districts of Coimbatore region, Coimbatore district shows the highest mean number of the accused i.e., 1.5 persons. Next to Coimbatore district, Nilgiris district shows the higher mean number of the accused i.e., 1.4 persons followed by Erode district that has 1.3 persons as the mean number of the accused.

In the territories of Coimbatore region, city areas show the highest mean number of the accused i.e., 1.6 persons whereas in urban

areas the mean number of the accused is 1.5 persons which is slightly lower than city areas but higher than rural areas where the mean number of the accused is 1.3 persons. To test whether there is difference in the number of the accused in different districts as well as in territorial areas, the accused are categorized as less number (upto 2) and more number (3 and more). The calculated Chi-square value among districts on the basis of the number of the accused is only 2.3 indicating that districts do not differ significantly in the number of the accused in burglary cases. When the same is calculated for territories the calculated Chi-square value 6.3 is statistically significant. In other words regarding the number of the accused in burglary cases territories differ significantly. Cities have more number of the accused per burglary case and rural areas have less number of the accused per burglary case.

The discussion clearly envisages that most of the burglaries are committed either by an individual or by more than one individual. The city areas of Coimbatore and Erode district are packed up with commercial buildings, apartments, and bungalows. Hence, more burglaries are committed during day, that too by two or more persons. The cramped nature of apartments does not allow a single individual to commit burglary by himself easily. However, night time burglaries are easily committed by a single individual in independently constructed houses in urban and rural areas.

Age of the Accused in Burglaries

Burglaries that are reported to the police officials in three districts of Coimbatore region are committed by persons from the age group of 12 to 65 years. Table 6.11 gives the classification of burglars on the basis of their age. Burglars upto the age of 20 years are treated as young. Those between 21 and 25 years of age are called youths. Persons in the age from 26 to 30 years are called adults and those between 31 and 40 years are named as grownup adults. Those who are above 40 years are named as aged persons. This is attempted to fix different groups for classification analysis.

Table 6.11
Age Distribution of the Accused in Burglary Cases

Particulars of Areas	Classification on the Basis of Age					Total No. of Accused	Mean Age	Accused Age not Recorded	χ^2 Value
	Young upto 20 yrs	Youth 21-25 yrs	Adult 26-30 yrs	Grown up Adults 31-40 yrs	Old Persons 41 & above yrs				
Coimbatore District	74 (21.0)	109 (31.0)	76 (21.7)	70 (20.0)	22 (6.3)	351 (100.0)	26.7	303	18.32*
Erode District	25 (17.4)	67 (46.9)	17 (11.9)	27 (18.9)	7 (4.9)	143 (100.0)	26.6	113	
Nilgiris District	14 (26.4)	11 (20.8)	12 (22.6)	12 (22.6)	4 (7.6)	53 (100.0)	27.5	47	
City Areas	57 (20.1)	92 (32.4)	60 (21.1)	57 (20.1)	18 (6.3)	284 (100.0)	27.3	110	16.73*
Urban Areas	12 (12.5)	46 (47.9)	12 (12.5)	22 (23.0)	4 (4.1)	96 (100.0)	26.3	80	
Rural Areas	44 (26.3)	49 (29.3)	33 (19.8)	30 (18.0)	11 (6.6)	167 (100.0)	26.5	273	
Coimbatore Region	113 (20.6)	187 (34.2)	105 (19.2)	109 (20.0)	33 (6.0)	547 (100.0)	26.8	463	

* Significant at 5 per cent level.

As could be seen in the above table, the mean age of the accused is 26.8 years in Coimbatore region. As far as districts are concerned, Nilgiris has the highest (27.5 years) mean age of burglars followed by Coimbatore and Erode district, where the mean age is 26.7 years and 26.6 years respectively.

When the mean age is analysed on the basis of territories, cities have reported the highest mean age of 27.3 years. Other urban areas have the lowest mean age of 26.3 years. Rural areas occupy a middle position with the mean age of 26.5 years.

The difference in the age distribution of burglars among districts with a Chi-square value of 18.32 is statistically significant. Therefore districts differ in terms of the age of burglars. Similarly, there is a difference among different territorial areas.

Except Nilgiris district, both Coimbatore and Erode districts have city population besides urban and rural population. So naturally the youth population who have been migrated to cities for employment opportunities are more in number in these two districts. Unemployment and poverty make some of the youths indulge in burglaries and they are high in number in these districts. Since Nilgiris district has no city areas, it has been found, that youth, adult and grown up adults who indulge in burglaries are comparatively more than young burglars. When we look into territorial areas of the districts, in city and urban areas, youths are more involved in burglaries for their

livelihood. They enter in gangs by breaking the locked doors of the buildings and apartments in residential and commercial areas. Sometimes they knock at the doors of the houses, and when opened, they threaten the house owners with weapons, and commit burglary in the residential places.

Types of Property Stolen by Burglars

Table 6.12 gives the different types of property stolen by the burglars in each district of Coimbatore region and the territorial areas during the year 2002. The different categories of properties that are stolen by burglaries are jewels, vehicles, electric goods, cash, machines, domestic goods, raw materials, cattle, cash, electric goods and other properties. Burglars steal items of valuables and utilities which are easy to carry.

Table 6.12



Types of Property Stolen by Burglars in Coimbatore Region

	Types of Property	Particulars of Area						Coimbatore Region
		Districts			Territories			
		Coimbatore District	Erode District	Nilgiris District	City Areas	Urban Areas	Rural Areas	
I	Jewels	139 (26.4)	58 (27.4)	9 (0.6)	92 (32.1)	32 (22.5)	82 (20.8)	206 (25.1)
II	Vehicles	16 (3.0)	1 (0.5)	-	7 (2.4)	2 (1.4)	8 (2.0)	17 (2.1)
III	Electric goods	85 (16.2)	50 (23.6)	13 (15.3)	51 (17.8)	20 (14.1)	77 (19.5)	148 (18.0)
IV	Cash	74 (14.1)	23 (10.8)	23 (10.8)	9 (10.6)	45 (15.7)	16 (11.3)	106 (12.8)
V	Machines	1 (0.2)	2 (0.9)	2 (2.4)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.7)	3 (0.8)	5 (0.6)
a.	Vessels	19	3	9	11	5	15	31
b.	Clothes	7	6	6	3	2	14	19
c.	Gas cylinders	-	1	1	-	1	1	2
d.	Tea dust	-	-	6	-	-	6	6
e.	Grocery	1	5	2	2	1	5	8
VI	Domestic goods	27 (5.1)	15 (7.1)	24 (28.2)	16 (5.5)	9 (6.3)	41 (10.4)	66 (8.0)
a.	Iron	10	1	-	7	1	3	11
b.	Wood	-	-	3	-	-	3	3
VII	Raw materials	12 (2.2)	1 (0.5)	3 (3.5)	9 (3.1)	1 (0.7)	6 (1.5)	16 (1.9)
a.	Cash & Electric goods	17	4	4	11	3	11	25
b.	Cash & Jewels	31	7	11	13	7	29	49
c.	Cash & Vehicle	18	1	-	-	5	14	19
d.	Cash & Vessels	3	2	-	3	-	2	5
e.	Cash & Machines	1	-	-	1	-	-	1
f.	Cash & Clothes	2	3	-	2	1	2	5
g.	Cash, Vehicle & E. goods	1	-	-	-	-	1	1
h.	Cash, Vessels & Jewels	3	2	-	2	-	3	5
i.	Cash, Clothes & E. goods	1	-	-	1	-	-	1

j.	Cash, Jewels & Vehicle	1	-	-	1	-	-	1
VIII	Cash & Other Properties	78 (14.8)	19 (8.9)	15 (17.6)	34 (11.8)	16 (11.3)	62 (15.7)	112 (13.6)
a.	E. goods & Vehicle	9	-	-	4	-	5	9
b.	E. goods & Clothes	-	2	-	-	-	2	2
c.	E. goods & Jewels	3	4	2	4	4	1	9
IX	Electric Goods & Other Property	12 (2.2)	6 (2.8)	2 (2.4)	8 (2.7)	4 (2.8)	8 (2.0)	20 (2.4)
X	Unclassified	81 (15.4)	37 (17.5)	8 (9.4)	23 (8.0)	41 (28.9)	62 (15.7)	126 (15.3)
	Total	525 (100.0)	212 (100.0)	85 (100.0)	286 (100.0)	142 (100.0)	394 (100.0)	822 (100.0)

It is obvious from the table 6.12 that in Coimbatore region, 822 cases of burglaries have been reported in the year 2002. The most prominent single item stolen by burglars happens to be jewelry accounting for one-fourth of the cases. Jewelry is compact and costly. It is available in most of the houses as well as other establishments, in combination with other items like cash, vehicles, silver vessels, and electrical and electronic goods. Sometimes jewelry is looted along with other properties and it constitutes another 64 cases. In other words one-third of burglaries involve theft of jewelry. In South India wearing jewels and hoarding gold is an important means of saving. Naturally burglars concentrate on these items, which are valuable, easy to carry and dispose. The next important property happens to be electric and electronic gadgets like computer, cell-phone, television, audio system, etc. They account for 148 cases. In combination with other goods, electric goods account for 80 cases. Thus every fourth case of the burglary involves electric goods. Currency is the most anonymous property and the easiest one for sharing or hording. Naturally

burglars aim at cash, and as many as 106 burglary cases are reported for stealing cash alone. If we add cash with other properties stolen, another 112 cases come to light i.e., 26.4 per cent of the burglary cases involve stealing of cash. Burglars crash the gate and enter into private premises and take away automobiles like scooters, bikes, and cars. Since the population of vehicles has increased in the recent past, the thieves have found it easy to use duplicate keys to take away the vehicles. Besides burglars find it convenient to carry the already stolen properties on such vehicles quickly. Many a time, in the compound of establishments or bungalow type houses, it becomes easier for the burglars to trespass and drive away such vehicles. For vehicles alone 17 burglaries have been committed. In addition to other things, burglars have taken away vehicles in 30 cases.

Thus 5.7 per cent of the burglary cases involve taking away vehicles along with other properties. In Coimbatore region, the use of pump-sets for water irrigation in farms is very common. Sometimes, these pump-sets too have been stolen by burglars; 5 cases are reported under machine stealing in Coimbatore region. Domestic items like vessels, clothes, gas cylinder and grocery are stolen by burglars in 8.0 per cent of the cases. Stealing iron box and wooden lots are reported in 2.0 per cent of the cases. In 15.3 per cent of burglaries, the property offences are complicated where they could not be classified, and hence, they are treated as unclassified.

Among the stolen properties, jewelry, cash and electric goods are predominant.*

Next to Coimbatore region, district wise burglaries have been analysed. In Coimbatore and Erode districts, the burglaries are largely committed for stealing jewels. This constitutes 26.4 per cent and 27.4 per cent of the total burglaries respectively. Moreover jewelry combined with other properties also constitutes one-third of the total burglaries in these two districts, whereas in Nilgiris district burglaries reported for stealing jewels constitute only 0.6 per cent, and jewels combined with other properties constitute one-fourth.

In both Coimbatore and Erode districts burglaries for cash alone and cash combined with other properties constitute 22.0 per cent and 20.0 per cent, whereas in Nilgiris district the cash and cash combined with other properties are stolen in as high as 45.0 per cent of the reported cases. In all the three districts, electric goods alone and combined with other properties constitute 22.0 per cent, 28.0 per cent, and 22.4 per cent respectively. Vehicle alone and combined with other properties are stolen in 8.4 per cent of the reported burglary cases in Coimbatore and 1.4 per cent in Erode, but no property loss in Nilgiris district. In Nilgiris district, domestic goods are stolen in as high as 28.2 per cent but only 5.1 per cent and 7.1 per cent in Coimbatore and Erode districts. The burglaries for raw materials like wood

* The related case study is given as Case 2 at the end of this chapter.

and iron rods constitute only 2.2 per cent, 0.5 per cent and 3.5 per cent in Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris districts respectively.

Among territorial areas, in cities, burglaries are reported for stealing jewels alone and jewels along with other properties, which constitute 39.1 per cent of the total burglaries. In rural areas stealing of jewels by burglars accounts for 31.2 per cent and in urban areas it stood at 30.3 per cent. While cash and other properties are stolen in as high as 43.0 per cent of the total reported burglaries in urban areas, in cities and rural areas, they constitute only 15.0 per cent and 19.7 per cent respectively. The next largest properties stolen by burglars in territorial areas are electric goods and electric goods along with other properties, which constitute 24.8 per cent, 24.6 per cent and 19.0 per cent in city, rural, and urban areas. The vehicles stolen by burglars constitute 7.1 per cent in rural areas, 4.9 per cent in urban areas, and 4.2 per cent in city areas. Besides burglaries are reported for other properties like domestic goods (5.5 per cent, 6.3 per cent, and 10.4 per cent), machines (0.3 per cent, 0.7 per cent, and 0.8 per cent) in city, urban, and rural areas.

Thus as high as 43.0 per cent of burglary cases reported in urban areas are for cash and other properties. The same is only 19.7 per cent in rural areas, and 15.0 per cent in cities. In cases of burglars taking vehicles, the rural percentage is 7.1, whereas urban and city percentages stands at 4.9 and 4.2 respectively. Regarding burglaries

involving electric goods and other commodities, there is relatively less variation among cities (24.8 per cent) and rural areas (24.6 per cent). The analysis of properties stolen by burglars indicates considerable variation among districts as well as territories.

DACOITY

When five or more persons together commit or attempt to commit a robbery, such an attempt is said to be “Dacoity” under IPC section 391. The punishment for dacoity is imprisonment for life or rigorous imprisonment for 10 years and fine under IPC section 395.

Dacoity is robbery committed by 5 or more persons conjointly. The definition includes the attempt to commit dacoity also.

- Five or more persons actually committing robbery is equal to dacoity.
- Five or more persons attempting to commit robbery is equal to dacoity.
- One committing robbery, in addition 4 persons are present and aid in commission is equal to dacoity.
- One attempting robbery, in addition 4 persons are present and aid in the attempt, is equal to dacoity.

The punishment for dacoity is death or life imprisonment or 10 years rigorous imprisonment and fine.

Aggravated forms of Dacoity

Aggravated forms of dacoity is if the offender uses any deadly weapon or causes grievous hurt to any person or attempts to cause death or grievous hurt to any person at the time of committing dacoity. The punishment is rigorous imprisonment for at least 7 years under IPC section 397. If the offender is armed with any deadly weapon at the time of attempting to commit dacoity, the punishment is rigorous imprisonment for 7 years under IPC section 398.

The other offences in connection with dacoity are making preparation for the act of dacoity, for which the punishment is rigorous imprisonment for 10 years and fine under IPC section 399. If a person just belongs to a gang of dacoits, the punishment is imprisonment for life or rigorous imprisonment for 10 years and fine under IPC section 400. People belonging to wandering gang of thieves are also punished under section 401 of IPC. Further assembling for the purpose of dacoity is punishable with rigorous imprisonment for 7 years and fine under IPC section 402. For instance when an individual comes out from the bank with money, he/she could be threatened and assaulted for looting the cash by a group of people who come in a vehicle suddenly is said to be dacoity. The study on dacoity in this chapter includes, rate of dacoity during the year 2002, timings of dacoity, age of the accused, number of persons involved in committing dacoity and types of property looted by dacoity that are reported in Coimbatore region.

Dacoities in Coimbatore Region

Dacoity is a cognizable offence. It is the crime committed against persons for property. Five or more persons with armed weapons injure others either by threatening or assaulting them and forcefully take away from them the properties like vehicles and other valuable materials. Table 6.13 gives the rate of dacoity during the year 2002 in Coimbatore region on the whole, the three districts, and the territorial areas.

Table 6.13
Dacoities in Coimbatore Region – 2002

Particulars of Areas	Population	No. of Dacoities	Dacoity Rate
Coimbatore District	4224107	11	0.0026
Erode District	2574067	8	0.0031
Nilgiris District	764826	3	0.0039
City Areas	1577664	3	0.0019
Urban Areas	706443	1	0.0014
Rural Areas	5278893	18	0.0034
Coimbatore Region	7563000	22	0.0029

It is revealed from the above table that the rate of dacoity is 0.0029 for the year 2002 in Coimbatore region. In other words for every 3.4 lakh population, one case is reported. Among the three districts of Coimbatore region, Nilgiris has the highest rate of dacoity. Coimbatore district has the lowest rate of dacoity. Among the territorial areas, the highest

rate of dacoity (0.0034) is reported in rural areas and the lowest rate of dacoity (0.0014) is reported in urban areas.

Among the districts Nilgiris happens to be hilly station where dacoity is committed without much difficulty, taking the gloominess of the station as an advantage. Among the territories dacoity is high in rural areas, followed by city areas. Dacoities, in rural areas, are committed by entering the isolated agricultural farm houses. Dacoits enter in gangs by the vehicles like lorry or van and assault the person who looks after sheepfold (a fenced enclosure for sheep), and steal sheep. They also loot properties like pipes and machines stored in the warehouse of the farms in rural areas.* Dacoity also happens in petrol bunks located on highway roads linking city areas. The dacoits in gang come by vehicles in the name of filling up petrol. If no one is in the vicinity, they suddenly threaten the cashier with weapons like knife, rifle, etc. and forcefully take away the cash from the bunks.

Timings of Dacoities

Dacoity is the crime committed against an individual or a group of individuals for properties like cash, vehicle, etc. either during day or night. Table 6.14 gives the reported number of dacoity offences committed during day and night in Coimbatore region.

* The related case study is given as Case 3 at the end of this chapter.

Table 6.14
Timings of Dacoities Reported in Coimbatore Region

Particulars of Areas	Timings of Dacoities Reported		Total No. of Cases
	Day	Night	
Coimbatore District	4 (36.4)	7 (63.6)	11 (100.0)
Erode District	2 (25.0)	6 (75.0)	8 (100.0)
Nilgiris District	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	3 (100.0)
City Areas	3 (100.0)	-	3 (100.0)
Urban Areas	-	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)
Rural Areas	4 (22.2)	14 (77.8)	18 (100.0)
Coimbatore Region	7 (31.8)	15 (68.2)	22 (100.0)

As could be seen in the above table, 22 dacoity cases reported in Coimbatore region, out of which 15 dacoities have been committed during night and 7 dacoities during day.

Regarding the time of occurrence among the districts proportionately more percentage of dacoities are committed in Erode district (75.0) during night and in Coimbatore (36.4) during day.

Among the territorial areas, in rural areas 18 dacoity cases have been reported out of which more than three-fourths have been committed during night. In urban areas only one dacoity is reported which took place during night. On the other hand in cities all the three dacoities during day. Since city areas have large heterogeneous, anonymous population, committing dacoity could be easy even during day.

Number of the Accused in Dacoities

Dacoities are committed by a group of persons. They arrive in groups mostly by vehicles with weapons. They are committed with an intention of taking away the valuable things such as cash, jewels, vehicles, etc. either by threatening or assaulting the owners. Table 6.15 gives the total number of persons involved in committing dacoities reported in Coimbatore district, Erode district, and Nilgiris district of Coimbatore region as well as in the three territorial areas.

Table 6.15
Number of the Accused in Dacoity Cases

Particulars of Areas	No. of the Accused Reported			Total No. of Cases	Mean No. of the Accused	Accused Not Recorded
	5	6 to 8	9 and above			
Coimbatore District	2 (25.0)	6 (75.0)	-	8 (100.0)	6.4	3
Erode District	-	3 (50.0)	3 (50.0)	6 (100.0)	8.0	2
Nilgiris District	1 (50.0)	1 (50.0)	-	2 (100.0)	6.0	1
City Areas	-	2 (100.0)	-	2 (100.0)	6.5	1
Urban Areas	-	-	-	-	-	1
Rural Areas	3 (21.4)	8 (57.1)	3 (21.4)	14 (100.0)	7.0	4
Coimbatore Region	3 (18.7)	10 (62.5)	3 (18.7)	16 (100.0)	6.9	6

The above table indicates that in Coimbatore region as high as 62.5 per cent of the dacoity cases that are reported have been committed by a group of 6 to 8 members. The dacoities committed by 5 persons and more than 8 persons constitutes equal percentage (18.7). The overall mean

number of the accused is 6.9 persons in Coimbatore region. When the three districts of Coimbatore region are compared, Erode district shows the highest mean number of the accused (8 persons). The mean number of the accused in Coimbatore district is 6.4, which is followed by Nilgiris district where the mean number is 6 persons.

Among the territories, no dacoity is reported in urban areas. The mean number of persons involved in committing dacoity in rural areas is 7, which is higher than city areas where the mean number of the accused is 6.5. In rural areas, the dacoities are largely committed by a gang of above 7 persons. Their main aim is to steal the cattle and sheep from cattle and sheep yards. In city areas dacoities are largely committed by a group of 6 or more persons who usually loot the passengers in highways.

Age of the Accused in Dacoities

The frequency distribution of the age of the accused who have committed dacoity in Coimbatore region which consists of district wise and territory wise is given in Table 6.16. The age of the accused is classified into young (upto 20 years), youth (between 21 to 25 years), adult (26 to 30 years), grown up adults (31 to 40 years) and old persons (above 40 years).

Table 6.16
Age Distribution of the Accused in Dacoity Cases

Particulars of Areas	Classification on the Basis of Age					Total No. of Accused	Mean Age	Age Not Recorded	χ^2 value
	Young Age upto 20yrs	Youth Age 21-25 yrs	Adult Age 26-30 yrs	Grownup Adults 31-40 yrs	Old Persons Age 41 & above yrs				
Coimbatore District	4 (9.3)	16 (37.2)	9 (20.9)	10 (23.3)	4 (9.3)	43 (100.0)	28.6	3	6.4*
Erode District	3 (7.0)	6 (14.0)	14 (32.5)	11 (25.6)	9 (20.9)	43 (100.0)	32.5	2	
Nilgiris District	-	3 (42.9)	4 (57.1)	-	-	7 (100.0)	25.3	1	
City Areas	-	7 (63.6)	1 (9.1)	3 (27.3)	-	11 (100.0)	25.3	1	4.7*
Urban Areas	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	
Rural Areas	7 (8.5)	18 (22.0)	26 (31.7)	18 (22.0)	13 (15.8)	82 (100.0)	30.9	4	
Coimbatore Region	7 (7.5)	25 (26.9)	27 (29.0)	21 (22.6)	13 (14.0)	93 (100.0)	30.3	6	

* Significant at 5 per cent level.
(Coimbatore Vs Erode districts)
(Rural Vs City area)

It is observed from the above table that in dacoity cases the mean age of the accused in Coimbatore region is 30.3 years. Among the three districts, in Erode district the mean age of the accused is 32.5 years, which is the highest. Next comes Coimbatore and Nilgiris districts, where the mean age of the accused is 28.6 and 25.3 years respectively. When the territories of Coimbatore region are analysed, in rural areas the mean age of the accused is 30.9 years and in the city areas it is 25.3 years only. In Urban areas, only one dacoity is reported, where the age of the accused is not recorded.

Since there is a considerable difference in the mean age of dacoits among the districts, the Chi-square value of frequencies is calculated. The difference in the age distribution between Coimbatore district and Erode district is significant. The difference in age distribution between city areas and rural areas is also statistically significant. Therefore, it is concluded that Coimbatore district as well as city areas have more dacoits in the age group of 21 to 25 years than other districts and rural areas.

The discussion clearly envisages that in rural areas dacoity as an act is practised by a group of people who belong to the same clan/kin group. This involves old and experienced persons as well as able-bodied youngsters, who are trained in the art of dacoity. In the cities, young and adult persons, who are under acute stress, attempt to commit dacoity. Naturally they are from a homogeneous age group and their mean age is less. Since members of the family as a whole carry out dacoity in rural areas, it is heterogeneous in terms of age, and consequently the mean age happens to be higher.

Types of Property Looted by Dacoits

Dacoits generally loot ready cash, gold ornaments, and vehicles. In rural areas cattle as well as agricultural products are looted by dacoits. Table 6.17 gives the different types of property that have been looted by dacoits during the year 2002 in Coimbatore region.

Table 6.17**Types of Property Looted by Dacoits in Coimbatore Region**

Types of Property	Particulars of Areas						Coimbatore Region
	Districts			Territories			
	Coimbatore District	Erode District	Nilgiris District	City Areas	Urban Areas	Rural Areas	
Cash	4 (36.3)	2 (25.0)	1 (33.3)	3 (100.0)	-	4 (22.2)	7 (31.8)
Vehicle	2 (18.2)	1 (12.5)	2 (66.7)	-	1 (100.0)	4 (22.2)	5 (22.7)
Cattles	-	1 (12.5)	-	-	-	1 (5.6)	1 (4.5)
Agricultural products	1 (9.1)	-	-	-	-	1 (5.6)	1 (4.5)
Gold & cash	3 (27.3)	2 (25.0)	-	-	-	5 (27.7)	5 (22.7)
Gold, cash & electric goods	1 (9.1)	-	-	-	-	1 (5.6)	1 (4.5)
Cash, vehicle & electric goods	-	1 (12.5)	-	-	-	1 (5.6)	1 (4.5)
No. property loss	-	1 (12.5)	-	-	-	1 (5.6)	1 (4.5)
Total	11 (100.0)	8 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	18 (100.0)	22 (100.0)

As could be seen in table 6.17, in Coimbatore region, in one-third of the cases, cash alone is looted. Cash in combination with gold and electric goods as well as vehicles account for 32.0 per cent. In other words every 2 out of 3 incidents of dacoities are committed for cash. In 22.7 per cent of the cases, dacoities are committed for vehicles. Dacoits find it easy to throw the drivers out and take away the vehicles. Cattle and agricultural products account for 9.0 per cent of the dacoity cases. Between districts

also, similar trend is visible. In terms of territories, all the three dacoities in city areas have been committed for looting cash. In urban areas, only one case of dacoity is reported, that too, to take away the vehicle forcibly. In rural areas, gold, cash, and vehicles are looted in more than three-fourths of the dacoity cases.

ROBBERY

Robbery is a felonious crime of taking away the property from a person either by violence or putting him in fear. Property is stolen away by using force on any person or putting or seeking to put any person in fear. The theft is said to be robbery if there has to be either violence or the threat of violence.

Theft is named as “robbery” if the thief voluntarily causes or attempts to cause a) death, hurt or wrongful restraint, or b) fear of instant death, instant hurt, or instant wrongful restraint while taking away the property.

Exortion is “robbery” if the offender, at the time of committing exortion, puts that person in fear of instant death, or of instant hurt or of instant wrongful restraint thereby forcing him to part with his things.

If robbery is committed on the highway between sunset and sunrise, then rigorous imprisonment for 14 years and fine under the IPC section 392 are awarded. If robbery is an attempt to commit, the

punishment is rigorous imprisonment for 7 years and fine under IPC section 393. If hurt is caused in committing or attempting to commit robbery, the punishment is imprisonment for life or rigorous imprisonment for 10 years and fine under IPC section 394.

Aggravated forms of robbery is if the offender uses any deadly weapon or causes grievous hurt to any person or attempts to cause death or grievous hurt to any person at the time of committing robbery. The punishment is rigorous imprisonment for at least 7 years under IPC section 397. If the offender is armed with any deadly weapon at the time of attempting to commit robbery, the punishment is rigorous imprisonment for at least 5 years under IPC section 398.

For instance, robbery would be where someone is approached in the street, knocked to the ground and their wallet or hand bag is taken. It is also robbery, to approach someone, threaten him with a knife or a similar weapon and take his property. The study on robbery in Coimbatore region includes, the rate of robbery during the year 2002, timings of robbery, number of the accused in robbery, age of the accused, and types of property looted by robbers.

Robberies in Coimbatore Region

The table 6.18 gives the rate of robbery during the year 2002 in Coimbatore region on the basis of districts and territories.

Table 6.18
Robberies in Coimbatore Region – 2002

Particulars of Areas	Population	No. of Robberies	Robbery Rate
Coimbatore District	4224107	49	0.0116
Erode District	2574067	17	0.0066
Nilgiris District	764826	1	0.0013
City Areas	1577664	26	0.0165
Urban Areas	706443	12	0.0170
Rural Areas	5278893	29	0.0055
Coimbatore Region	7563000	67	0.0088

The above table gives the rate of robbery in Coimbatore region which is 0.0088 during the year 2002. In other words for every 1.13 lakh population, one case of robbery is reported. In Coimbatore district the rate is 0.0116, that is, for every 86 thousand people one robbery is reported. In case of Nilgiris district the rate is as low as 0.0013, that is, one incident of robbery has been reported for 76 thousand people. Among the territories, urban areas have the highest rate of 0.0170, that is, for every 59 thousand population one case is reported. For the city it is for every 60 thousand population, one case is reported. In the case of rural areas, the rate is much less (0.0055). For every 1.8 lakh population, one case of robbery is reported in rural areas.

The discussion clearly envisages that subways and dark streets in city and urban areas are the ideal places for robbers, to commit robbery and decamp with jewels and cash.

Timings of Robberies

Robberies have been committed by robbers with courage and pre-plan. They enter the buildings, banks, etc. with weapons, and threaten or some times assault the people inside the buildings for looting property. Table 6.19 gives the timings of the reported robberies that have been committed both during day and night in three districts (Coimbatore, Erode, and Nilgiris) and in three territorial areas (city, urban, and rural) of Coimbatore region.

Table 6.19
Timings of Robberies Reported in Coimbatore Region

Particulars of Areas	Timings of Robberies Reported		Total No. of Cases	χ^2 value
	Day	Night		
Coimbatore District	22 (44.9)	27 (55.1)	49 (100.0)	1.5
Erode District	5 (29.4)	12 (70.6)	17 (100.0)	
Nilgiris District	1 (100.0)	-	1 (100.0)	
City Areas	15 (57.7)	11 (42.3)	26 (100.0)	1.2
Urban Areas	3 (25.0)	9 (75.0)	12 (100.0)	
Rural Areas	10 (34.5)	19 (65.5)	29 (100.0)	
Coimbatore Region	28 (41.8)	39 (58.2)	67 (100.0)	

* Significant at 5 per cent level.
(Coimbatore Vs Erode districts)
(Rural Vs City, Urban areas)

District wise analysis of timing of robberies reveals that, 2 out of 5 robberies have taken place during day and 3 during night. The variations between districts and rural areas among territories do not differ much. In cities out of 26 robberies, half of them (57.7 per cent) have been committed during day and in urban areas, three-fourths of the total robberies (75.0 per cent) during night.

To conclude, the large, heterogeneous and anonymous population of city areas seldom recognizes the robbers, who venture into these types of crimes even during day.

Number of the Accused in Robberies

Robberies are committed either by a single person or by a group of persons. Number of persons involved in each robbery offence that is reported in Coimbatore district, Erode district and Nilgiris district as well as in the territorial areas namely city, urban and rural of Coimbatore region is given in table 6.20.

Table 6.20
Number of the Accused in Robbery Cases

Particulars of Areas	No. of the Accused Reported				Total No. of Cases	Mean No. of the Accused	Accused Not Recorded
	1	2	3	4			
Coimbatore District	12 (36.4)	13 (39.4)	4 (12.1)	4 (12.1)	33 (100.0)	2.0	16
Erode District	-	-	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	3 (100.0)	3.6	14
Nilgiris District	1 (100.0)	-	-	-	1 (100.0)	1.0	-
City Areas	4 (22.2)	10 (55.6)	2 (11.1)	2 (11.1)	18 (100.0)	2.1	8
Urban Areas	3 (37.5)	3 (37.5)	1 (12.5)	1 (12.5)	8 (100.0)	2.0	4
Rural Areas	6 (54.5)	-	2 (18.2)	3 (27.3)	11 (100.0)	2.2	18
Coimbatore Region	13 (35.1)	13 (35.1)	5 (13.5)	6 (16.2)	37 (100.0)	2.1	30

The above table reveals that in Coimbatore region, the mean number of the accused is 2.1 persons. Among the three districts, Erode district has the highest mean number of 3.6 persons followed by Coimbatore and Nilgiris district where the mean number of the accused is 2.0 persons and 1.0 person respectively. There is not much difference in the mean number of the accused in city, urban, and rural areas.

Age of the Accused in Robberies

The crime robbery is committed by individuals of different age groups ranging from 18 to 55 years. Table 6.21 gives the age group classification of the accused namely, young (upto 20 years), youth (21 to 25 years), adults (26 to 30 years), grown up adults (31 to 40 years), and old persons (above 40 years).

Table 6.21
Age Distribution of the Accused in Robbery Cases

Particulars of Areas	Classification on the Basis of Age					Total No. of Accused	Mean Age	Age Not Recorded	χ^2 value
	Young Age upto 20yrs	Youth Age 21-25 yrs	Adult Age 26-30 yrs	Grownup Adults 31-40 yrs	Old Persons Age 41 & above yrs				
Coimbatore District	8 (12.1)	28 (42.4)	15 (22.7)	9 (13.6)	6 (9.1)	66 (100.0)	27.1	16	
Erode District	1 (9.1)	7 (63.6)	2 (18.2)	1 (9.1)	-	11 (100.0)	21.5	14	1.2
Nilgiris District	-	1 (100.0)	-	-	-	1 (100.0)	24.0	-	
City Areas	7 (18.4)	16 (42.1)	10 (26.3)	4 (10.5)	1 (2.6)	38 (100.0)	25.2	8	
Urban Areas	1 (6.3)	10 (62.5)	3 (18.7)	2 (12.5)	-	16 (100.0)	24.4	4	2.5
Rural Areas	1 (4.2)	10 (41.6)	4 (16.7)	4 (16.7)	5 (20.8)	24 (100.0)	30.6	18	
Coimbatore Region	9 (11.5)	36 (46.2)	17 (21.8)	10 (12.8)	6 (7.7)	78 (100.0)	26.7	30	

* Significant at 5 per cent level.
(Coimbatore Vs Erode districts)
(Rural Vs City, Urban areas)

The frequency distribution of the age of robbers in each district as well as territorial areas (city, urban and rural) of Coimbatore region is

analysed in detail. The overall mean age of the accused is 26.7 years. Among the districts, Coimbatore district shows the highest mean age of the accused i.e., 27.1 years followed by Nilgiris and Erode districts where the mean age is 24.0 years and 21.5 years respectively.

In the territories of Coimbatore region, rural areas show the highest mean age of 30.6 years. In city areas, the mean age of the accused is 25.2 years, followed by urban areas where it is 24.4 years. The mean difference between districts and territories is relatively less. Therefore, on the basis of age of the robbers, there is no difference. It is a heterogeneous group; both young and old people rob.

Types of Property Looted by Robbers

Table 6.22 gives the different types of properties looted by robbers in Coimbatore district, Erode district and Nilgiris district of Coimbatore region as well as in the territorial areas of city, urban and rural. The different types of property looted by robbers are cash, gold vehicle, gold, and cash, electric goods and gold, cash and electric goods, etc.

Table 6.22
Types of Property Looted by Robbers in Coimbatore Region

Types of Property	Particulars of Areas		Coimbatore Region
	Districts	Territories	

	Coimbatore District	Erode District	Nilgiris District	City Areas	Urban Areas	Rural Areas	
Cash	13 (26.5)	3 (17.6)	-	7 (27.0)	3 (25.0)	6 (20.7)	16 (23.9)
Gold	12 (24.5)	7 (41.2)	1 (100.0)	6 (23.1)	4 (33.3)	10 (34.5)	20 (29.8)
Vehicle	3 (6.1)	1 (5.9)	-	1 (3.8)	1 (8.3)	2 (6.9)	4 (6.0)
Gold & cash	7 (14.3)	1 (5.9)	-	3 (11.5)	1 (8.3)	4 (13.8)	8 (11.9)
Gold & Electric goods	1 (2.0)	1 (5.9)	-	1 (3.8)	-	1 (3.4)	2 (3.0)
Cash & Electric goods	4 (8.2)	-	-	1 (3.8)	-	3 (10.3)	4 (6.0)
Cash & Vehicle	3 (6.1)	-	-	2 (7.7)	1 (8.3)	-	3 (4.4)
Gold & Vehicle	2 (4.1)	-	-	2 (7.7)	-	-	2 (3.0)
Gold, Electric goods & Cash	2 (4.1)	-	-	1 (3.8)	1 (8.3)	-	2 (3.0)
Electric goods, Clothes & Gold	2 (4.1)	-	-	2 (7.7)	-	-	2 (3.0)
No Property loss	-	4 (23.5)	-	-	1 (8.3)	3 (10.3)	4 (6.0)
Total	49 (100.0)	17 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	26 (100.0)	12 (100.0)	29 (100.0)	67 (100.0)

It is observed from the above table that in Coimbatore region, out of 67 robbery offences that are reported, 29.8 per cent have been committed for gold alone and 23.9 per cent, for cash alone. 11.9 per cent of the robberies have been committed for looting gold and cash. Electric goods and gold have been looted in 6.0 per cent of the reported cases of robberies. Vehicles, too, are looted in another 6.0 per cent of total robberies. In some cases, gold, electric goods and cash are looted with other items like clothes

and jewels and they constitute 22.4 percentage of total robberies in Coimbatore region.

When the three districts of Coimbatore region are analysed, it is revealed that in Coimbatore district as high as 26.5 per cent of the robberies have been committed for looting cash, whereas in Erode district as high as 41.2 per cent of robberies for looting gold. In Nilgiris district, only one robbery for gold has been committed.

In Coimbatore district next to cash, other properties looted by robbers are gold (24.5 per cent), gold and cash (14.3 per cent) cash and electric goods (8.2 per cent), vehicle (6.1 per cent), and cash and vehicle (6.1 per cent). In Erode district next to gold, the other major properties that are stolen by robbers are cash (17.6 per cent), vehicles (5.9 per cent), gold and cash (5.9 per cent), and gold and electric goods (5.9 per cent).

In all the territorial areas of Coimbatore region, most of the robberies have been committed either for cash or for gold. The above table indicates that out of the total robberies in city areas, 27.0 per cent and 23.1 per cent of robberies are reported for looting cash and gold, whereas in urban areas robberies are committed for gold (33.3 per cent) followed by cash (25.0 per cent). Likewise in rural areas also, more robberies are for gold (34.5 per cent) followed by cash (20.7 per cent). Sometimes gold or cash are robbed along with other properties and they constitute a meager percentage of the total robberies in territorial areas of Coimbatore region.

A close look at items looted indicates that jewelry is involved in 54 per cent of the cases either individually or collectively. Cash is involved in 49 per cent of the cases. Therefore it is concluded that the prime target of robbers is jewelry or cash.*

Property Offences in Police Subdivisions

The property offences reported in Coimbatore region are analysed on the basis of the number of incidents reported in various police subdivisions in each one of the three districts. As explained earlier Coimbatore district has eight subdivisions, Erode district has six subdivisions and Nilgiris district has five subdivisions (Figures 6.7, 6.9 and 6.11). The number of cases reported in each such subdivision on the basis of different types of property offences are recorded and presented for analysis. The three dimensional cubic pictures in figures 6.7, 6.9 and 6.11 represent the total number of reported thefts, burglaries, dacoities and robberies in each police subdivision of Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris districts. The volume of the circle represents the total number of property offences reported in each police subdivision.

Property Offences in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District

The property offences namely Theft, Burglary, Dacoity and Robbery reported in different police subdivisions of Coimbatore district are presented in table 6.23 and figure 6.7. Further the figure 6.8 gives spatial

* The related case study is given as Case 4 at the end of this chapter.

spread of property offences in various police stations which come under the police subdivisions.

Table 6.23

Property Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District

Police Subdivisions	Types of Property Offence				Total No. of Cases
	Theft	Burglary	Dacoity	Robbery	
Avanashii	125 (81.7)	25 (16.3)	2 (1.3)	1 (0.7)	153 (100.0)
Tiruppur	313 (78.4)	70 (17.5)	1 (0.3)	15 (3.8)	399 (100.0)
Palladam	100 (71.4)	31 (22.1)	3 (2.1)	6 (4.3)	140 (100.0)
Udumalpet	91 (75.2)	27 (22.3)	-	3 (2.5)	121 (100.0)
Pollachi	95 (60.5)	57 (36.3)	1 (0.6)	4 (2.5)	157 (100.0)
Podhanur	87 (49.4)	81 (46.0)	1 (0.6)	7 (4.0)	176 (100.0)
Periyanaickanpalayam	137 (72.1)	50 (26.3)	1 (0.5)	2 (1.1)	190 (100.0)
Coimbatore city	1067 (84.4)	184 (14.6)	2 (0.2)	11 (0.8)	1264 (100.0)
Total	2015 (77.5)	525 (20.2)	11 (0.4)	49 (1.9)	2600 (100.0)

In Coimbatore district 2600 property offences have been reported. Thefts account for 77.5 per cent of the cases, burglaries 20.2 per cent, robberies 1.9 per cent, and dacoities 0.4 per cent. Theft is the most popular property offence. The percentage of the theft cases vary from 84.4 per cent

in Coimbatore city to 49.5 per cent in Podhanur. Police subdivisions with more rural police stations have less percentage of theft cases, and subdivisions with cities have more percentage of theft cases.

Burglary offences constitute one-fifth of property offences. The rural subdivisions like Podhanur, Pollachi, and Perianaickanpalayam have markedly higher percentage of cases under burglary. Similarly dacoity is also more in rural subdivisions. As far as robbery is concerned no such difference is seen. Palladam, Podhanur, and Tiruppur have larger number of reported robbery cases than other subdivisions.

The spatial location of property offences presented in figure 6.8 gives the number of incidents in different police stations. Police stations in the southern half of the district have relatively less number of property offences and the middle and the northern part of the district have heavy concentration of property offences. The economically affluent parts like cities and rich rural areas like the cotton belt of Udumalai, Coconut farms of Pollachi, and sub urban fringes have reported more property offences. Therefore, it is concluded that property offences are more in city oriented subdivisions and relatively less in affluent suburban as well as rural pockets of Coimbatore district.

Property Offences in Police Subdivisions of Erode District

Property offences reported in different police subdivisions of Erode district are presented in the table 6.24 and figure 6.9. Further the figure 6.10 gives spatial spread of property offences in various police stations coming under these subdivisions.

Table 6.24

Property Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District

Police Subdivisions	Types of Property Offence				Total No. of Cases
	Theft	Burglary	Dacoity	Robbery	
Erode town	255 (79.9)	58 (18.2)	-	6 (1.9)	319 (100.0)
Perundurai	73 (69.5)	31 (29.5)	-	1 (1.0)	105 (100.0)
Bhavani	63 (62.4)	36 (35.6)	1 (1.0)	1 (1.0)	101 (100.0)
Gobi	71 (65.1)	29 (26.6)	2 (1.8)	7 (6.4)	109 (100.0)
Sathy	65 (73.0)	21 (23.6)	3 (3.4)	-	89 (100.0)
Dharapuram	92 (69.2)	37 (27.8)	2 (1.5)	2 (1.5)	133 (100.0)
Total	619 (72.3)	212 (24.8)	8 (0.9)	17 (2.0)	856 (100.0)

In Erode district 856 cases of property offences have been reported, out of which 70.3 per cent are theft cases, 24.8 per cent are burglary cases, 2.0 per cent robbery cases, and 0.9 per cent dacoity cases. Erode town police subdivision has nearly 80.0 per cent of theft cases and only 18.0 per cent burglary cases. The rural subdivisions like Bhavani, Gobi and Dharapuram have less percentage of thefts and proportionately more percentage of burglary cases. Gobi subdivision has high percentage of robbery cases too.

The spatial spread of the cases in different police stations (figure 6.10) indicates high concentration of property offences in city and urban stations. Stations like Bhavani and Gobi have also reported more number of property offences. The northern extreme and southern extreme of Erode district have very less number of cases. The northern extreme happens to be the forest and tribal areas and in the southern part it is completely a dry belt around Dharapuram.

Property Offences in Police Subdivisions of Nilgiris District

Property offences reported in different police subdivisions of Nilgiris district are presented in the table 6.25 and figure 6.11. Further the figure 6.12 gives, spatial spread of property offences in various police stations coming under these subdivisions.

Table 6.25**Property Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Nilgiris District**

Police Subdivisions	Types of Property Offence				Total No. of Cases
	Theft	Burglary	Dacoity	Robbery	
Ooty	44 (67.7)	19 (29.2)	1 (1.5)	1 (1.5)	65 (100.0)
Ooty rural	4 (36.4)	7 (63.6)	-	-	11 (100.0)
Coonoor	42 (66.7)	21 (33.3)	-	-	63 (100.0)
Gudalur	20 (45.4)	23 (52.3)	1 (2.3)	-	44 (100.0)
Devala	17 (51.5)	15 (45.5)	1 (3.0)	-	33 (100.0)
Total	127 (58.8)	85 (39.3)	3 (1.4)	1 (0.5)	216 (100.0)

Only 5.8 per cent (216 cases) of property offences in Coimbatore region have been reported from Nilgiris district. As in other districts police subdivisions with urban stations have reported more number of cases and rural subdivisions less number of cases. Theft is reported more in Ooty and Coonoor, and burglary more in rural areas.

The spatial spread of property offences as presented in figure 6.12 reveals high concentration in urban police stations like Ooty central, Ooty town and Coonoor town. They account for one-third of the cases

reported in the entire district. There are six police stations, where not even a single case was reported. In another six police stations only one or two cases have been recorded. Most of these cases are related to burglaries, which are committed in isolated estates and residential houses. Out of 25 police stations 12 of these police stations account for only 5.0 per cent of the cases. The lack of interest on the part of tribals and rural people to report the occurrences of property offences to the police may be one of the reasons for less number of properties offences in police stations of Nilgiris district. Absence of valuable movable properties among the people and the effective informal social control are some other reasons for less incidents of property offences.

The subdivision wise and station wise spatial spread of property offences indicate that, thefts are more in city and urban areas. Burglaries and Dacoities are more in isolated rural areas. There is close relationship between economic affluence and incidence of property offences; dry belts and sparsely populated areas have very less number of cases. In certain pockets the cultural condition like tribal solidarity and informal rural social control are also responsible for less number of cases.

The overall analysis on property offences indicates that among districts, in Coimbatore district and among territorial areas, in city and urban areas the offences are registered more. Simmel in his work on 'Metropolis and Mental life' discusses the consequences of a money economy

for social relationships. Simmel said that money not only meant for depersonalisation of social life but personal freedom. The large city's, heterogeneity and cosmopolitanism require a certain kind of personality, through intellectual, un-emotive, reserved and detached. This urban personality is the basic reason for increasing property offences in these areas.⁹²

Case Studies

Case 1

Mariamma aged 60 years, resides with her son in Nachipalayam village of Coimbatore. Her daughter got married to a security guard who worked in the city. One Sunday afternoon Mariamma decided to visit her daughter's house. So she took a sum of seven hundred rupees with her to catch the bus in the nearby bus stand. The bus stand was as usual overcrowded. The innocent, illiterate Mariamma asked a man who stood nearby to help her to find her bus. The man noticed the gold chain around Mariamma' neck and also came to understand that she had some cash with her. Using her innocence, he developed a conversation with Mariamma and won her trust. After a few minutes of talk, he asked the woman to give her bag as the bus would be too crowded to get in. Believing that, she gave her bag to that unknown person. A few minutes later, he told Mariamma that the bus was approaching; when she turned around, he suddenly snatched the chain away from her neck and fled the scene before

⁹² G. Simmel, *The Field of Sociology (1917)*, in *The Sociology of George Simmel*, ed. K.H. Wolf (Free Press, Chicago: 1950) pp. 409-412.

Mariyamma raised alarm. Mariyamma who lost her cash and chain lodged a complaint with the help of her son in the nearby police station and the case was booked under section 379 of IPC. The unknown person was later identified as Palaniswamy, 25 years old, residing in a nearby village, when he was caught red-handed in another theft. He was handed over to the police from whom the police recovered Mariyamma's jewel and cash.

Case 2

Durai, 55 years old businessman, resides with his wife Meenakshi at Coonoor in Nilgiris District. His native place is Madurai where he has some lands as ancestral property. They have a daughter, Deepa, who got married and settled in U.S.A. As Deepa got pregnant, Meenakshi decided to visit her. After Meenakshi left for U.S.A., Durai stayed alone in his house. When Durai had to go to Madurai for a month, he handed over his home key to his neighbour, Stalin informing him about his trip. After a week's time, two persons came in a tempo to Durai's house. They showed a letter to Stalin, which, they told, was written by Durai. In the letter it was written that as Durai's daughter would like to visit Madurai for her delivery, they needed some important household items to be transferred to Madurai. Stalin, was requested by Durai to hand over the keys to the persons who showed the letter. These unknown persons who not only told all the details of Durai's family, but also pretended to be the loyal servants of Durai. Believing that, Stalin gave away the keys to them, who took away all the valuable household items furnished in Durai's house and fled the scene by using the tempo. Durai came to know this incident only after his return

from Madurai. He came to understand that in addition to household items, jewels, cash and electric goods were also stolen. He made a complaint in the Coonoor police jurisdiction in which he alleged that some miscreants who made keen observation of his move could have done this burglary. A case was filed under section 454/380 IPC.

Case 3

Ramasamy of 47 years old resides with his family in his farmhouse situated in Kangayam of Erode. In their warehouse, they stored newly bought PVC (Poly Vinyl Chloride) pipes that were to be installed within a day or two for water irrigation in their lands. Ramasamy asked an age old labourer Murugesan to take care of those pipes in the warehouse. The next day, at midnight, a gang of seven dacoits entered the farm in a tempo. They parked the vehicle away from the farm and walked into the warehouse. They broke open the door and assaulted Murugesan. As they were seven, it was easy for them to remove the pipes from the warehouse and carried away them in the tempo. Murugesan was unconscious at that time. When he became conscious, he informed Ramasamy about this dacoity. Ramasamy reported this incident to the police and a case was booked under section 397 of IPC.

Case 4

Radhika, 19 years old and her father Anbumani, 40 years old, reside in Kovaipudhur residential area of Coimbatore. Their house has two portions, which are adjacent. They decided to leave one portion for rent.

One day a middle aged man approached them asking for that portion for rent. He also expressed his desire of seeing around the portion before taking any decision on rent. After seeing around the house he said that he was quite satisfied with the house. He further told that he wanted to show the portion to his brother also, who, according to him, was his well-wisher. After a week's time the same person accompanied with another person came to Radhika's house and asked her to show around the house for them. Radhika had to take care of them alone as her father was not at home at that time. Since, both of them seemed to be decent and polite, Radhika didn't hesitate to show around the house to them. As they went around the house one man suddenly entered the kitchen and Radhika had no other way but to follow him. The other man stood at the hall itself. Suddenly the man who was in the kitchen, showed a knife to Radhika. The other man who stood at the hall locked the front door of the portion and came behind Radhika and attacked her with iron rod. When Radhika regained her consciousness, she came to understand that all her jewels and valuable items in their own portion were stolen. She felt miserable as she had been cheated and robbed by thieves whom she believed as decent men. Then a case was reported by Radhika's father, which was filed under section 392 of IPC.

CHAPTER 7

GRAVE OFFENCES IN COIMBATORE REGION

Grave offence is the death caused for money or for other purposes either by a person or by a group of persons in the form of assault. Murder is a grave offence which means killing a person with premeditated “malice known as malice aforethought” in English law. The expression malice aforethought has been defined as the “freely formed intention of a man to pursue a course of conduct which he realizes will or may bring about the death of some person”. The word murder is derived from the Germanic word “Morth” which means secret killing. In the Indian Penal Code section 300, murder is defined as,

1. The act by which death is caused with the intention of causing death; or
2. The act done with the intention of causing such bodily injury as the offender knows to be likely to cause the death of the person to whom the harm is caused; or
3. The act done with the intention of causing bodily injury to any person, and the bodily injury intended to be inflicted is sufficient in the ordinary course of nature to cause death; or
4. Committing the act, knowing that it is so imminently dangerous that it must, in all probability cause death or such bodily injury as is likely to

cause death and committing such act, without any excuse for incurring the risk of causing death or such bodily injury as aforesaid.

Murder for gain is the crime where the accused not only injures the person but also kills him/her for property. The main motive of the criminal is to take away the property from individuals at any cost. The murder for other purposes happens due to several reasons like quarrel between the family members, the suspicion that one spouse may have of the other spouse on the basis of adultery and infidelity, and previous enmity. All these may lead to brutal murder of friends, relatives, co-workers, etc.

The present chapter analyses in detail the rate, the number of persons involved, the gender of the accused and other details of grave offences, such as murder for gain and murder for other purposes in Coimbatore region. Few case studies are also included to understand the nature of the crime and criminals.

Murders for Gain in Coimbatore Region

The table 7.1 gives the rate of murder for gain during the year 2002, in the Coimbatore region, and in the three districts of Coimbatore region namely, Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris districts and territorial areas of Coimbatore region, which include cities, urban, and rural areas.

Table 7.1
Murders for Gain in Coimbatore Region – 2002

Particulars of Areas	Population	No. of Murders for Gain	Murder for Gain Rate
Coimbatore District	4224107	6	0.0014
Erode District	2574067	3	0.0012
Nilgiris District	764826	-	-
City Areas	1577664	2	0.0013
Urban Areas	706443	1	0.0014
Rural Areas	5278893	6	0.0011
Coimbatore Region	7563000	9	0.0012

It is indicated in the above table that in Coimbatore region, the rate of murder for gain is 0.0012. In other words, for every 8.4 lakh population, one murder for gain is reported during the year 2002. In two districts of Coimbatore region namely, Coimbatore and Erode, the rate of murder for gain is 0.0014 and 0.0012. No such case is reported in Nilgiris district. In other words for every 7.0 lakh population, one murder is reported in Coimbatore district, and for every 8.5 lakh population, one murder is reported in Erode district.

On the basis of territory, urban areas have the highest rate of 0.0014, which means for every 7 lakh population, one murder is reported. Rural areas have the lowest rate of 0.0011, indicating that for every 8.8 lakh population one murder is reported.

Grave offences are more in urban areas as they represent the 'gesellschaft' form of human association as prescribed by Tonnie. Tonnie in his work on 'Community and society' presents a typology of community life related to two forms of human association e.g., the village representing *gemeinschaft*, whereas the city and the urban areas are based on the relations of *gesellschaft*. *Gemeinschaft* is 'the lasting and genuine form of living together' *gesellschaft* is in contrast, to be understood as 'a multitude of natural and artificial individuals, who remain nevertheless independent of one another and devoid of all mutual familiar relationships'. Further he wrote, in *gesellschaft* every person strives for that which is to his own advantage, and he affirms the actions of others only in so far as and as long as they further his interest. This type of human relationships may induce some persons to indulge in heinous crimes in urban areas.⁹³

Timings of Murders for Gain

Murder for gain is a grave crime, which is committed by killing a person cruelly for property*. This offence happens both during day and night. Table 7.2 gives the timings of murders for gain that have been committed by the accused in Coimbatore region.

⁹³ F. Tonnie, *Community and Society*, (Harper & Row, New York: 1963), p. 35.

* The related case study is given as Case 1 at the end of the chapter.

Table 7.2**Timings of Murders for Gain in Coimbatore Region**

Particulars of Areas	Timings of Murders for Gain Reported		Total No. of Cases
	Day	Night	
Coimbatore District	3 (50.0)	3 (50.0)	6 (100.0)
Erode District	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)	3 (100.0)
Nilgiris District	-	-	-
City Areas	2 (100.0)	-	2 (100.0)
Urban Areas	-	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)
Rural Areas	2 (33.3)	4 (66.7)	6 (100.0)
Coimbatore Region	4 (44.4)	5 (55.6)	9 (100.0)

It is observed from the above table that in Coimbatore region, 9 cases of murder for gain offences are reported. Out of 9 murder offences, 5 offences have been committed during night and the remaining 4 during day. When the three districts of Coimbatore region are compared, there is no murder for gain in Nilgiris district during the year 2002. In Coimbatore district, murders for gain have taken place both during day and night equally, whereas in Erode out of 3 murders for gain, 2 have been committed during night and one during day.

Among the territorial areas, 6 murders for gain are reported in rural areas out of which 4 have been committed during night and the remaining 2 during day. In city areas both the murders for gain have been committed during day. In urban areas, only one case has happened, that too during night. On the whole, there is very little difference in the time of occurrence of murders for gain.

Number of the Accused in Murders for Gain

Table 7.3 gives the number of the accused involved in each offence of murder for gain that is reported in the three districts as well as in the territorial areas: city, urban, and rural areas of Coimbatore region.

Table 7.3
Number of the Accused in Murder for Gain Cases

Particulars of Areas	No. of the Accused Reported		Total No. of Cases	Mean No. of the Accused	Accused Not Recorded
	1	2			
Coimbatore District	2 (40.0)	3 (60.0)	5 (100.0)	1.6	1
Erode District	1 (100.0)	-	1 (100.0)	1.0	2
Nilgiris District	-	-	-	-	-
City Areas	1 (50.0)	1 (50.0)	2 (100.0)	1.5	-
Urban Areas	-	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	2.0	-
Rural Areas	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	3 (100.0)	1.3	3
Coimbatore Region	3 (50.0)	3 (50.0)	6 (100.0)	1.5	3

It is observed from the above table that the mean number of the accused who involved in committing murder for gain is 1.5 persons in Coimbatore region. The mean number of the accused in Coimbatore district is 1.6 persons, which is followed by Erode district where the mean number of the accused is 1 person.

Among the territorial areas, namely urban, city and rural areas, it is found that the mean number of the accused involved in murder for gain is 1.5, 2.0, and 1.3 persons respectively. Generally persons who commit such serious offences do not want to involve more number of persons. Most of the time the accused acts alone or in the company of another person. The primary purpose is not only to gain money but also to escape from identification. No wonder the mean number of the accused is less.

Age of the Accused in Murders for Gain

The murder for gain is committed by people of different age groups. In the table 7.4, the accused are classified into various categories based upon their ages i.e., young comes under the age group upto 20 years. Youths are from 21 to 25 years, and adults in the age group of 26 to 30 years. Grown up adults are those in the age group of 31 to 40 years, and old persons are in the age group of above 41 years.

Table 7.4**Age Distribution of the Accused in Murder for Gain Cases**

Particulars of Areas	Classification on the Basis of Age					Total No. of Accused	Mean Age	Age Not Recorded
	Young Age upto 20yrs	Youth Age 21-25 yrs	Adult Age 26-30 yrs	Grownup Adults 31-40 yrs	Old Persons Age 41 & above yrs			
Coimbatore District	1 (12.5)	4 (50.0)	2 (25.0)	-	1 (12.5)	8 (100.0)	27.3	1
Erode District	-	-	-	1 (100.0)	-	1 (100.0)	39.0	2
Nilgiris District	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
City Areas	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	-	-	3 (100.0)	23.0	-
Urban Areas	-	2 (100.0)	-	-	-	2 (100.0)	24.5	-
Rural Areas	-	1 (25.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (25.0)	4 (100.0)	34.7	3
Coimbatore Region	1 (11.1)	4 (44.4)	2 (22.2)	1 (11.1)	1 (11.1)	9 (100.0)	28.5	3

The table above reveals that the mean age of the accused is 28.5 years in the murder for gain cases that are reported in Coimbatore region. Among the three districts, in Erode district the mean age of the accused is 39 years and in Coimbatore district, the mean age of the accused is 27.3 years.

Among the territorial areas of Coimbatore region, the highest mean age of the accused is 34.7 years in rural areas. In urban areas, the mean age of the accused is 24.5 years, which is higher than the city areas where it is only 23.0 years. The age of the accused in rural area is markedly higher and in city it is lower.

In other words young persons commit murder in urban areas and in rural areas, old persons resort to murders for gain.

Types of Property Gained by Murderers

The properties like, cash, gold, electric goods and gold, cash, vehicle and electric goods have been stolen by murderers. Table 7.5 gives the nature of the property gained by murderers.

Table 7.5
Types of Property Gained by Murderers in Coimbatore Region

Types of Property	Particulars of Areas						Coimbatore Region
	Districts			Territories			
	Coimbatore District	Erode District	Nilgiris District	City Areas	Urban Areas	Rural Areas	
Cash	3 (50.0)	1 (33.3)	-	1 (50.0)	1 (100.0)	2 (33.3)	4 (44.4)
Jewels	1 (16.6)	2 (66.7)	-	1 (50.0)	-	2 (33.3)	3 (33.3)
Electric goods & jewels	1 (16.7)	-	-	-	-	1 (16.7)	1 (11.1)
Cash, Vehicle & Electric goods	1 (16.7)	-	-	-	-	1 (16.7)	1 (11.1)
Total	6 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	-	2 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	6 (100.0)	9 (100.0)

It is observed from the above table that in Coimbatore region, out of 9 reported cases, cash was taken away from the deceased by the offenders in 4 cases, jewels in 3 cases, electric goods and jewels in one case, and electric goods, jewels and vehicle in one case.

When the three districts of Coimbatore region are compared, it could be seen that out of 6 reported cases of the murders for gain, half of

the murders have been committed for cash. Murders have also been committed for jewel (1), electric goods and jewel (1), cash vehicle and electric goods (1) respectively, whereas in Erode district out of 3 murders, 2 have been committed for gold and the remaining one for cash.

When murders for gain in territorial areas of Coimbatore region are analysed, it is found that more murders (6) for gain have been committed in rural areas. Totally 6 cases are reported, out of which 2 murders have been committed for cash, 2 for gold and the remaining 2 for electric goods with gold, and cash with vehicle and electric goods. In cities two cases are reported, one for cash and the other for gold. In urban areas only one incident of murder for gain has taken place, that too, for cash. When the incidence of murder for gain is closely analysed with the population composition as well as territories, there is fair and equitable distribution of occurrences.

Murders for Other Purposes in Coimbatore Region

Murder for other purposes happens mostly due to dispute between two or more persons or because of previous enmity. The dispute usually starts with a verbal quarrel and ends up in killing the opponents. Some times the suspicion that husband and wife have of each other may lead to murder for other purposes*. These grievous offences undergo depth investigation by the police officials and the accused are arrested under the

* The related case study is given as Case 2 at the end of this chapter.

Indian Penal Code section 302 IPC. The table 7.6 gives the rate of murder for other purposes during the year 2002 in Coimbatore region.

Table 7.6
Murders for Other Purposes in Coimbatore Region – 2002

Particulars of Areas	Population	No. of Murders for Other Purposes	Murder for Other Purposes Rate
Coimbatore District	4224107	88	0.0208
Erode District	2574067	47	0.0182
Nilgiris District	764826	21	0.0275
City Areas	1577664	33	0.0210
Urban Areas	706443	15	0.0212
Rural Areas	5278893	108	0.0205
Coimbatore Region	7563000	156	0.0206

The above table reveals that the rate of murder for other purposes in Coimbatore region is 0.0206. Among the three districts of Coimbatore region, Nilgiris district has the highest rate of murder for other purposes i.e., 0.0275. This is followed by Coimbatore and Erode districts where the rate of murder for other purposes is 0.0208 and 0.0182 respectively. Among the territorial areas, urban areas have the highest rate of murder for other purposes i.e. 0.0212, followed by city (0.0210) and rural (0.0205) areas.

In other words Coimbatore district has recorded one murder for other purposes for every 48 thousand people. Erode district has the lowest

reported cases of murder for other purposes i.e., one for 55 thousand population. Nilgiris district has the highest i.e., one for over 36 thousand population. Regarding territories, urban areas have the highest (one for 47 thousand), city areas (one for 48 thousand), and rural areas (one for 49 thousand). Among the districts, there are considerable variations and among the territories, the variations are few. As Nilgiris district happens to be an isolated hilly area, alienation of people (migrant tea garden workers) from outside world becomes one of the causes for murders in some cases.

Number of the Accused in Murders for Other Purposes

The number of the accused in cases of murder for other purposes is known to the police from the statements of culprits, eye witnesses, friends, relatives, and family members of the deceased. After due cross-examination, they fix the actual number and charge sheet the case. On the basis of recorded charge sheet, the number of the accused are determined. Table 7.7 gives the frequency of cases on the basis of the number of the accused in each case of murder for other purposes.

Table 7.7
Number of the Accused in Murder for Other Purpose Cases

Particulars of Areas	No. of the Accused Reported					Total No. of Cases	Mean No. of the Accused	Accused Not Recorded
	1	2	3	4 or 5	6 or more			
Coimbatore District	39 (54.2)	17 (23.6)	7 (9.7)	3 (4.2)	6 (8.3)	72 (100.0)	2.1	16
Erode District	29	3	3	6	2	43	2.3	4

	(67.4)	(7.0)	(7.0)	(14.0)	(4.6)	(100.0)		
Nilgiris District	10 (52.6)	6 (31.6)	2 (10.5)	1 (5.3)	-	19 (100.0)	1.6	2
City Areas	15 (46.9)	10 (31.2)	3 (9.4)	1 (3.1)	3 (9.4)	32 (100.0)	2.2	1
Urban Areas	8 (66.7)	3 (25.0)	-	-	1 (8.3)	12 (100.0)	2.5	3
Rural Areas	55 (61.1)	13 (14.4)	9 (10.0)	9 (10.0)	4 (4.4)	90 (100.0)	1.9	18
Coimbatore Region	78 (58.2)	26 (19.4)	12 (8.9)	10 (7.5)	8 (6.0)	134 (100.0)	2.1	22

The above table reveals that the mean number of the accused involved in committing murder for other purposes in Coimbatore region is 2.1 persons. Among the three districts, the mean number of the accused is 2.3 persons in Erode district, 2.1 persons in Coimbatore district, and 1.6 persons in Nilgiris district.

Among the territorial areas, the mean number of the accused involved in committing murder for other purposes is 2.5 persons in urban areas, 2.2 persons in city areas, and 1.9 persons in rural areas.

As high as 58.2 per cent of the murder for other purpose cases involve a single person in Coimbatore region. Among the districts in Erode 67.4 per cent of cases and among territorial areas in urban areas 66.7 per cent of cases, involve one person. Involvement of 2 persons is reported in 19.4 per cent of the cases in Coimbatore region. In Nilgiris district 31.6 per cent of the reported cases and in city areas 31.2 per cent of the reported cases, 2 persons are involved. Erode district has only 7.0 per cent of cases,

involve 2 accused and rural areas have 14.4 per cent of cases involve 2 accused. Involvement of 3 persons is reported in 8.9 per cent of cases. There is little variation among districts and territories regarding involvement of 3 persons in murder. Involvement of 4 or 5 persons in murder is reported in 7.5 per cent of the cases. In Erode district, it is 14.0 per cent and in rural areas, it is 10.0 per cent. Coimbatore district and city areas have 4.2 per cent and 3.1 per cent of the cases respectively with 4 or 5 accused. Regarding 6 or more accused persons in murder cases, the overall average is 6.0 per cent. In these cases city areas have the share of 9.4 per cent and urban areas, 8.3 per cent. Coimbatore district has a higher percentage (8.3 per cent) than the overall average. There were 3 murder cases involving 10 persons (2 cases) and 16 persons (1 case). This could be termed as gang murder. Two cases were reported from Coimbatore and one from Erode district. Regarding territory, 1 each was from city, urban and rural areas. Therefore, the number of the accused between districts and territorial areas are fairly distributed and the variability is insignificant.

Age of the Accused in Murders for Other Purposes

Murder for other purposes has been committed by persons of different age groups. The table 7.8 gives the frequency distribution of the accused on the basis of their age group in each district as well as in the territories of Coimbatore region. The age of the accused is classified into five groups namely young (upto 20 years), youth (21 to 25 years), adults (26 to 30 years), grown up adults (31 to 40 years), and old persons (41 and above years).

Table 7.8**Age Distribution of the Accused in Murder for Other Purpose Cases**

Particulars of Areas	Classification on the Basis of Age					Total No. of Accused	Mean Age	Age Not Recorded
	Young Age upto 20yrs	Youth Age 21-25 yrs	Adult Age 26-30 yrs	Grownup Adults 31-40 yrs	Old Persons Age 41 & above yrs			
Coimbatore District	16 (10.7)	38 (25.5)	26 (17.4)	35 (23.5)	34 (22.8)	149 (100.0)	32.3	16
Erode District	6 (6.1)	22 (22.4)	18 (18.4)	19 (19.4)	33 (33.7)	98 (100.0)	36.3	4
Nilgiris District	3 (9.1)	7 (21.2)	3 (9.1)	10 (30.3)	10 (30.3)	33 (100.0)	34.7	2
City Areas	5 (6.3)	16 (20.0)	19 (23.8)	13 (16.2)	27 (33.7)	80 (100.0)	36.0	1
Urban Areas	1 (4.5)	8 (36.4)	3 (13.6)	6 (27.3)	4 (18.2)	22 (100.0)	31.8	3
Rural Areas	19 (10.7)	43 (24.2)	25 (14.0)	45 (25.3)	46 (25.8)	178 (100.0)	33.7	18
Coimbatore Region	25 (8.9)	67 (24.0)	47 (16.8)	64 (22.8)	77 (27.5)	280 (100.0)	33.2	22

The data of the above table reveals that the mean age of the accused who committed murder for other purposes in Coimbatore region is 33.2 years. Among three districts of Coimbatore region, in Erode district the mean age of the accused is 36.3 years. The mean age of the accused who committed murder for other purposes in Nilgiris district is 34.7 years, which is higher than Coimbatore district where the mean age of the accused is 32.3 years. Among the territories of Coimbatore region, the mean age of the accused is highest in city areas, which is 36.0 years followed by rural and urban areas, where the mean age of the accused is 33.7 and 31.8 years respectively.

Regarding specific age group distribution of the accused, old persons above the age of 40 years constitute 27.5 per cent of the accused in

murder for other purposes in Coimbatore region. In Erode district and city areas, their composition is one-third of the accused. Grown up adults in the age group of 31 to 40 constitute 22.8 per cent of the accused in murder for other purposes in Coimbatore region. They form 30.3 per cent in Nilgiris and 27.3 per cent in urban areas. Youth in the age group of 21 to 25 years form one-fourth of the accused in Coimbatore region. In urban areas youth constitute 36.4 per cent of the total accused. Adults in the age group of 26 to 30 constitute 16.8 per cent of the accused in Coimbatore region. In city areas, among the accused, one-fourth of them are adults. Young persons below 21 years constitute 8.9 per cent of the accused in Coimbatore region. Their percentage is slightly high (10.7 per cent) in Coimbatore district as well as in rural areas. Their percentage is very low (4.5 per cent) in urban areas and Erode district (6.1 per cent). On the whole in cities and in Erode district, the accused in murder for other purpose cases are mostly old persons in the age group of 41 and above years. Since murder for other purposes mainly relates to strain in social relationship, it happens among all age group of people irrespective of the district, and territorial areas they belong to.

Gender of the Accused in Murders for Other Purposes

Both men and women involve in grave offences, even though the share of women is relatively less. Table 7.9 gives the gender of the accused involved in murder offences that are reported in districts namely,

Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris of Coimbatore region as well as in city, urban and rural areas of Coimbatore region.

Table 7.9
Gender of the Accused in Murder for Other Purpose Cases

Particulars of Areas	Gender of the Accused Reported			Total No. of Cases	Gender Not Recorded
	Male	Female	Both		
Coimbatore District	64 (88.9)	3 (4.2)	5 (6.9)	72 (100.0)	16
Erode District	33 (76.7)	5 (11.6)	5 (11.6)	43 (100.0)	4
Nilgiris District	16 (84.2)	3 (15.8)	-	19 (100.0)	2
City Areas	30 (93.7)	-	2 (6.3)	32 (100.0)	1
Urban Areas	11 (91.7)	1 (8.3)	-	12 (100.0)	3
Rural Areas	72 (80.0)	10 (11.1)	8 (8.9)	90 (100.0)	18
Coimbatore Region	113 (84.3)	11 (8.2)	10 (7.5)	134 (100.0)	22

It is observed from the above table that in Coimbatore region out of 134 reported cases of murder for other purposes, in 84.3 per cent of the murders men are involved. In 8.2 per cent of the reported cases, women alone are involved, and in 7.5 per cent of the reported cases, both men and women are involved. When the three districts are compared, Coimbatore district shows that men are involved in 88.9 per cent of the murder cases. In 6.9 per cent of the cases both men and women are involved and only in 4.2 per cent of the reported cases women alone are involved. Similarly in

Erode district, three-fourths of the murder offences have been committed by men and 11.6 per cent of the reported offences by women, and another 11.6 per cent by both. In Nilgiris district 84.2 per cent of the murders have been committed by men, and the remaining 15.8 per cent by women. No offence, in which both the sexes are involved, has been reported in this district.

Among the territories, out of 90 murders for other purposes that are reported in rural areas, 80.0 per cent have been committed by men, 11.1 per cent by women, and 8.9 per cent by both. In city areas, as high as 93.7 per cent of the reported offences have been committed by men and 2 cases (6.3 per cent) by both. In urban areas, only one offence is committed by a woman (8.3 per cent) and 11 offences by men (91.7 per cent).

On the whole the women involvement in murder is in 16.0 per cent of the cases. Murder by women alone is reported in 11 out of 134 cases. Women murderers are more in rural areas, in Nilgiris and Erode districts. City and urban areas have relatively less number of women heading murders. The main reason for women emerging as murderers is to safeguard their modesty, chastity or to get relief from the perpetuated cruelty of their husbands.

The above discussion on grave offences envisages that marked differences can be noticed among districtwise and territorialwise analysis of murders for gain and murders for other purposes in Coimbatore region.

Case Studies

Case 1

Shanmugam of 56 years old resides with his wife Usha of 49 years old in Dharapuram of Erode district. They have a son who works in a private company in Salem. Shanmugam is a retired headmaster and he spends his time by taking tuition to high school students. Their house has two portions. As they lived in one portion, they wanted to leave the other for rent. One day a young man came to their house and introduced himself as Ramesh. In addition to that, he showed the ration card as a proof of his identity and told them that he needed a portion for rent, as he was searching for job. His polite talk and innocent look created sympathy towards him. Without knowing what destiny had in store for them, both husband and wife decided to leave the other portion for rent to Ramesh. After few days, Shanmugam, as usual left home for taking tuition in the evening. Using this opportunity, Ramesh entered Shanmugam's house where Usha was alone. Before she could realize what was happening, Ramesh strangled her neck and killed her. Then he removed all the jewels from Usha's dead body. Then he dragged the dead body to his portion and locked the house from outside and decamped with jewels. When Shanmugam returned from tuition he found his wife was missing. He was surprised as his wife never went anywhere without informing him. He rang up to his relatives and friends and made enquires. As there was no information about the where about of Usha, he became very much worried. He then informed his son. On his son's advice, Shanmugam lodged a

complaint in the police station. It was already midnight when the police reached there for enquiry. From their enquiry, they came to know that Ramesh too did not turn up yet to his portion. Police officials suspected Ramesh and broke open the door of his portion; they found the dead body of Usha.

A case of murder for gain was recorded under section 302 of IPC and the accused was convicted for life imprisonment.

Case 2

Sasirekha, 25 years of old, got married to Ravichandran, 31 years of old. Soon after her marriage her husband left for Dubai for employment. Then she used to live with her parents who lived in Sathy of Erode District. After two years of his stay in Dubai, Ravichandran came back to India. After his return both husband and wife started to live separately in Erode town. As Sasirekha got pregnant, they both went to the hospital for medical check up.

The doctor informed that Sasirekha was two months pregnant. On hearing this, Ravichandran became suspicious because it was only 40 days, since he had returned from Dubai. He started to suspect Sasirekha's character and he firmly believed that his wife cheated him by her infidelity. From that day Sasirekha was subjected to a number of harassments by her husband. He used to quarrel with her whenever he was drunk. One midnight the drunken Ravichandran, who was unable to control his anger, in his inebriated mood, thrashed Sasirekha's head with a huge stone. The

next morning the neighbours, who came to know about the incident, informed her parents. Ravichandran's absence made Sasirekha's parents to suspect his foul play. A case was filed under section 302 of IPC.

CHAPTER 8

CRIMES AGAINST WOMEN IN COIMBATORE REGION

The problem of violence against women is not new. Women in Indian society have been victims of ill-treatment, humiliation, torture, and exploitation. Physical and psychological violence perpetuated on women are the most painful discrimination.* The constitution of India guarantees equality, freedom, opportunity, and protection to women.

To uphold the constitutional mandate, the Government has enacted various legislative measures intended to ensure equal rights, to counter social discrimination and various forms of violence and atrocities. Although women may be victims in any crime, the crimes, which are directed specially against women, are characterized as “Crime against Women”. The crimes identified under the Indian Penal Code are

- i) Rape (Section 376, IPC).
- ii) Kidnapping and abduction for different purposes (Sections 363-373, IPC).
- iii) Homicide for dowry, dowry deaths or their attempts (Section 302/ 304-B, IPC).
- iv) Torture, both mental and physical (Section 498-A, IPC).

* National Crime Record Bureau Report, 1994, 2000, etc. contain details of phenomenal rise in crime against women in India.

- v) Molestation (Section 354, IPC).
- vi) Sexual harassment, referred to in the past as “eve-teasing” (Section 509 IPC).
- vii) Importation of girls (up to 21 years of age) (Section 366-B IPC).

The chapter includes only the cognizable offences against women namely, dowry death or their attempts, rape, kidnapping and abduction, and molestation. The analysis is made on the reported offences in Coimbatore, Erode, and Nilgiris districts of Coimbatore region and its territorial areas. The subdivisionwise details of these reported crimes for each district of Coimbatore region is furnished along with relevant tables. Among these crimes, rape is sexual violence; dowry-death/harassment and molestation are physical violence; kidnap/abduction is both social and economic violence (abduction for the purpose of selling and getting money). Some case studies that interested the researcher are given at the end of this chapter to understand the nature of crimes against women.

DOWRY

The practice of women giving a ‘dowry’ or gift to men at marriage is said to have had its origin in the system of ‘Streedhan’ (Women’s share of parental wealth given to her at the time of her marriage). Women had no right to inherit the shares of the ancestral property. So Streedhan was seen as a way by which the family ensured that she had access to some of its wealth. The custom of Streedhan in the form of gift later changed its shape

and entered the Indian marriage system in the form of dowry which has become compulsory in recent years.

Today the evil of dowry has acquired menacing proportions in the social system of India cutting across caste, creed, and religion. What really started from the noble gesture of the parents willingly imparting a reasonable sum to their daughters at the time of marriage, mainly to assist her to start a new life has today acquired very horrifying and demeaning dimensions, leading often to murders or physical and mental torture of newly married girls, which are legally known as dowry deaths and dowry harassments.

Dowry death of a woman is caused by any burns or bodily injury or that which occurs other than under normal circumstances within seven years of her marriage; and if it is shown that soon before her death she was subjected to cruelty or harassment by her husband or any relative of her husband for, or in connection with any demand for dowry, death shall be called "Dowry Death", and the husband or relative shall be deemed to have caused her death.

Whoever causes dowry death shall be punished with imprisonment for a term which shall not be less than seven years but which may extend to imprisonment for life under section 304-B (IPC). This section was inserted into the Dowry Prohibition (Amendment) Act 1986 (Act No.43 of 1986).

A presumption as to dowry death as against the accused has also been inserted in the Indian Evidence Act (1872). It denotes that when the question is whether a person has caused dowry death of a woman, and when it is shown that soon before her death such woman had been subjected by such person to cruelty or harassment for, or in connection with any demand for dowry, the court shall presume that such person had caused the dowry death. This shall have the same meaning as in section 304-B of the Indian Penal Code.

The Criminal Procedure Code of 1973 made dowry death a non-bailable cognizable or non-cognizable offence. In this connection reference should necessarily be made to section 498-A of Indian Penal Code, which defines “Cruelty by Husband or relatives of the Husband”. Whoever, being the husband or the relative of the husband of a woman, subjects a woman to cruelty shall be punished with imprisonment for a term which may extend to 3 years and shall also be liable to fine under section 498-A of IPC. In spite of the various steps taken by the government, dowry related harassment is increasing in number, which sometimes may end up in dowry deaths. This study includes the rate of dowry offences (both harassment and death) reported in Coimbatore region, in police subdivisions of Coimbatore, Erode, and Nilgiris districts, and the age of victims in reported dowry cases of Coimbatore region.

Dowry Offences in Coimbatore Region

Table 8.1 gives the rate of dowry offences that are reported during the year 2002 in Coimbatore region on the basis of districts and territorial areas namely city areas, urban areas, and rural areas.

Table 8.1
Dowry Offences in Coimbatore Region – 2002

Particulars of Areas	Population	No. of Offences	Rate of Offences
Coimbatore District	4224107	112	0.0265
Erode District	2574067	30	0.0117
Nilgiris District	764826	21	0.0275
City Areas	1577664	52	0.0329
Urban Areas	706443	70	0.0991
Rural Areas	5278893	41	0.0077
Coimbatore Region	7563000	163	0.0216

The table above reveals that the rate of dowry offences in Coimbatore region is 0.0216 in the year 2002. When the three districts of Coimbatore region are compared, it could be seen that Nilgiris and Coimbatore show higher dowry offences at the rate of 0.0275 and 0.0265, whereas in Erode district, the rate of dowry offences is only 0.0117.

In other words for every 46 thousand population, one dowry offence is reported in Coimbatore region. District wise analysis shows that dowry offence is as high as one for 36 thousand in Nilgiris and one for 37

thousand in Coimbatore district. In Erode district relatively very few number of dowry offences are reported with one case for every 86 thousand population. Regarding the territories, urban areas are reported with very high incidence with one case for every 10 thousand population. In cities it is one case for every 30 thousand population. Rural areas have quite a few cases only one dowry offence case for every 1.29 lakh population.

It is inferred that in Coimbatore region, the practice of dowry prevails in all the three districts. Hence, it becomes clear that, dowry practice is evaded in many ingenious ways in spite of the enactment of Dowry Prohibition Act in India. Unfortunately the basic attitude towards women has remained unchanged. In Erode district where the rural population is more, the rate of dowry offences is low. It is obvious that the illiterate women in rural areas are not aware of the legal provisions against dowry. Even if they know the laws, they are reluctant to report the cases because of lack of family and social support. Among the territorial areas, urban areas show the highest rate of dowry offences. This is because even educated and prosperous parents-in-law do not hesitate to torture the daughters-in-law who venture enough to report their grievances of dowry harassment with police officials.

Dowry Offences Reported in Coimbatore District

Coimbatore district has the following Police subdivisions namely, Avanashi, Tiruppur, Udumalpet, Pollachi, Podhanur, and

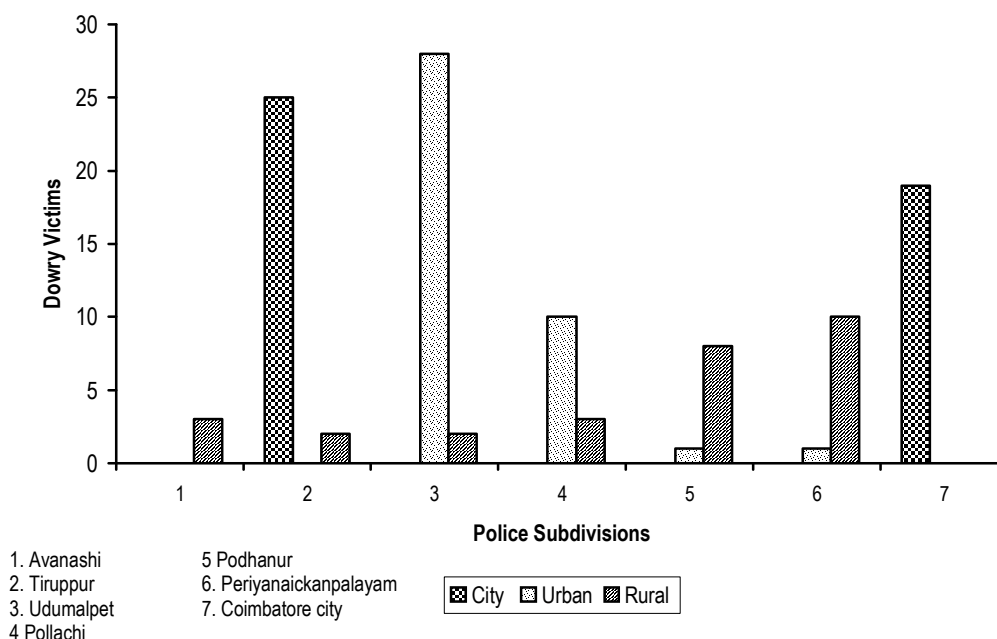
Perianaickanpalayam. The Coimbatore city consists of 12 police stations under the head of commissioner of police. So Coimbatore city is considered as a separate subdivision for the study. Each police subdivision covers the city, urban and rural territorial areas. Moreover the subdivisions hold a group of police stations located in city or urban or in rural area. Table 8.2 and figure 8.1 give the dowry offences reported in police subdivisions of Coimbatore district.

Table 8.2

Dowry Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District

Police Subdivisions	Dowry Offences			Total No. of Cases
	City	Urban	Rural	
Avanashi	–	–	3	3
Tiruppur	25	–	2	27
Udumalpet	-	28	2	30
Pollachi	–	10	3	13
Podhanur	–	1	8	9
Periyanaickanpalayam	–	1	10	11
Coimbatore City	19	–	–	19
Total	44 (39.3)	40 (35.7)	28 (25.0)	112 (100.0)

Figure 8.1. Dowry Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District



The police subdivisions cover city, urban and rural areas, or urban and rural areas, or rural areas alone. It is observed from the above table that out of 112 dowry offences reported in the police subdivisions of Coimbatore district, 44 and 40 offences are reported from city and urban areas followed by rural areas where only 28 dowry offences have been reported. Increase in the number of women police stations and women's exposure to urban and city life instill confidence in them and induce them to complain against dowry menace.

Dowry Offences Reported in Erode District

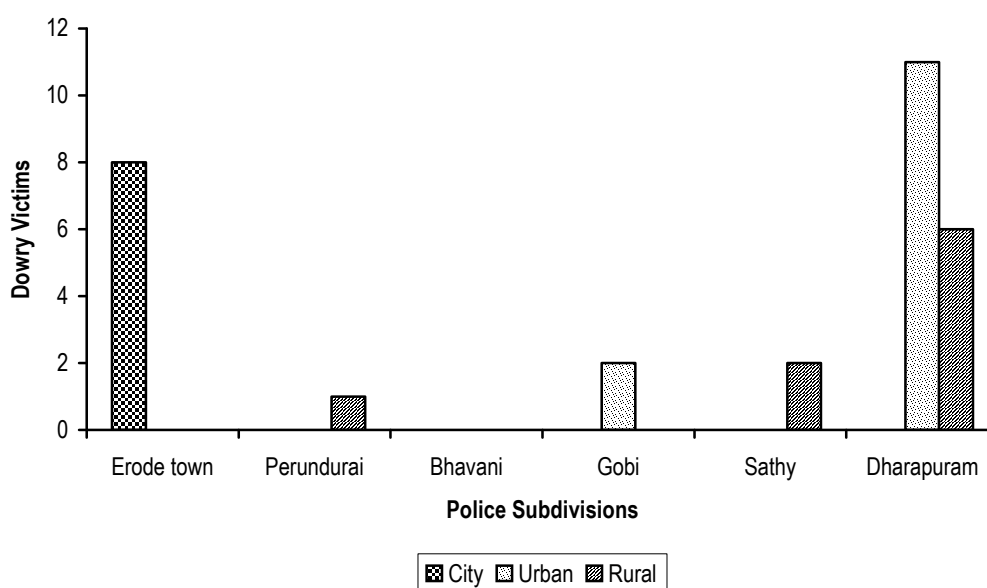
Table 8.3 and figure 8.2 give the number of dowry offences that are reported in the police subdivisions of Erode district. The police

subdivisions in Erode district are Erode town, Perundurai, Bhavani, Gobi, Sathy, and Dharapuram. Erode town alone covers the city area, whereas the other police subdivisions cover either urban and rural areas or the rural areas alone.

Table 8.3
Dowry Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District

Police Subdivisions	Dowry Victims			Total No. of Cases
	City	Urban	Rural	
Erode Town	8	—	—	8
Perundurai	—	—	1	1
Gobi	—	2	—	2
Sathy	—	—	2	2
Dharapuram	—	11	6	17
Total	8 (26.7)	13 (43.3)	9 (30.0)	30 (100.0)

Figure 8.2. Dowry Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District



The above table indicates that totally 30 dowry offences are reported in police subdivisions of Erode district. Among the territorial areas in this district, 13 dowry offences have been reported in urban areas, 9 and 8 dowry offences have been reported in rural and city areas respectively. In this district, each subdivision has a separate women police station situated in urban areas, which encourages women to report. Though the district has high proportion of rural population, the reported dowry offences are next only to urban areas. This is due to the lack of knowledge of rural women about the laws related to the social evil of dowry. Moreover the fear of social stigma prevents them from approaching the police officials. So, they suffer in silence and lead a miserable life.

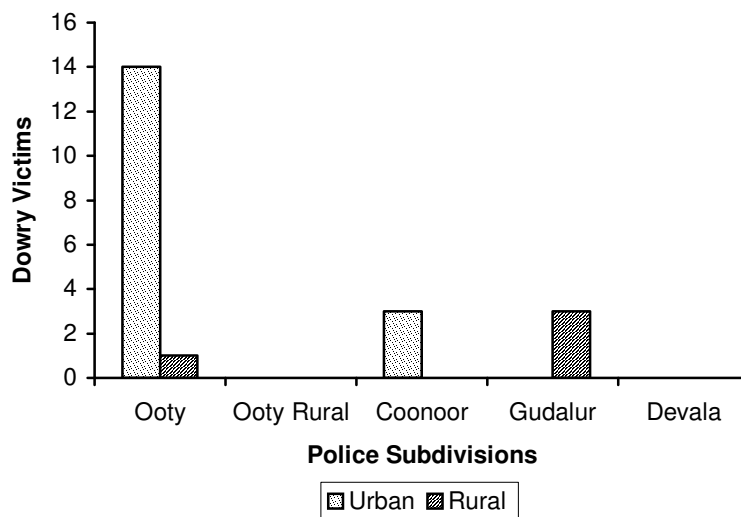
Dowry Offences Reported in Nilgiris District

The police subdivisions in Nilgiris district are Ooty, Ooty rural, Coonoor, Gudalur, and Devala. Most of these subdivisions cover only the rural areas except Coonoor and Ooty, which cover urban areas also. Moreover three all women police stations are situated in Ooty, Coonoor, and Gudalur. Table 8.4 and figure 8.3 give the number of dowry offences reported from urban and rural areas in different police subdivisions of Nilgiris district.

Table 8.4
Dowry Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Nilgiris District

Police Subdivisions	Dowry Victims		Total No. of Cases
	Urban	Rural	
Ooty	14	1	15
Ooty rural	-	-	-
Coonoor	3	-	3
Gudalur	-	3	3
Devala	-	-	-
Total	17 (81.0)	4 (19.0)	21 (100.0)

Figure 8.3. Dowry Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Nilgiris District



The above table reveals that totally 21 dowry offences are reported in Nilgiris district, out of which 81.0 per cent are reported from urban areas and the remaining 19.0 per cent are reported from rural areas. Urban people have “market mentality” which makes them greedy, selfish and exploitative. Even literate people want to climb the social ladder overnight by way of demanding more dowry from bride’s family. Persecution of brides is more prevalent in the urban areas due to the break up of the joint family system. Lewis Wirth in his work on ‘Urbanism as a way of life’ mention about ‘Market mentality’ as one of the primary characteristics of urban people, i.e., persons see most others not as individuals, but as one of a social category – a customer, a client, a collector of garbage etc. The city people suffer from depersonalization and they relate to each other primarily in terms of goods and services they supply for each other⁹⁴. Thus greedy parents-in-law view young brides not as their daughters-in-law but simply money spinning machines. The table above reflects the attitude of urban people towards dowry practice. In the rural areas of Nilgiris district, the tribes, who are more in number, are very conservative, orthodox, suspicious, and less exposed to the developing society. Hence, the percentage of dowry harassment is less among these people.

Age of Victims in Reported Dowry Cases

Both dowry harassment and dowry death occurred in all the three districts of Coimbatore region. Table 8.5 gives the age of victims who

⁹⁴ L. Wirth, “Urbanism as a Way of Life”, *American Journal of Sociology*, **44** (1938): 1-24.

have suffered from dowry harassment from their husbands, and other relatives. Victims are classified on the basis of their age group: young (up to 20 years), youth (21 to 25 years), adults (26 to 30 years), grown up adults (31 to 40 years), and old persons (41 and above years).

Table 8.5
Age Distribution of Victims in Reported Dowry Cases

Particulars of Areas	Age of Victims					Total No. of Victims	Mean Age	Age Not Recorded
	Young Age upto 20yrs	Youth Age 21-25 yrs	Adult Age 26-30 yrs	Grownup Adults 31-40 yrs	Old Persons Age 41 & above yrs			
Coimbatore District	18 (20.7)	40 (46.0)	18 (20.7)	10 (11.5)	1 (1.1)	87 (100.0)	24.9	25
Erode District	4 (22.2)	5 (27.8)	6 (33.3)	3 (16.7)	-	18 (100.0)	23.9	12
Nilgiris District	4 (21.1)	7 (36.8)	4 (21.0)	3 (15.8)	1 (5.3)	19 (100.0)	26.1	2
City Areas	9 (20.0)	20 (44.4)	12 (26.7)	4 (8.9)	-	45 (100.0)	24.7	7
Urban Areas	12 (27.3)	16 (36.4)	8 (18.1)	7 (15.9)	1 (2.3)	44 (100.0)	25.2	26
Rural Areas	5 (14.3)	16 (45.7)	8 (22.9)	5 (14.3)	1 (2.8)	35 (100.0)	25.5	6
Coimbatore Region	26 (21.0)	52 (41.9)	28 (22.6)	16 (12.9)	2 (1.6)	124 (100.0)	25.2	39

The above table reveals that the mean age of dowry victims in Coimbatore region is 25.2 years. Among the districts of Coimbatore region, Nilgiris district shows the highest mean age of victims as 26.1 years. Coimbatore district has the mean age of 24.9 years, which is slightly higher than Erode district, which has the mean age of 23.9 years. Among the

territorial areas, the mean age of the victim is 25.5 years in rural areas. In urban areas, the mean age of the victim is 25.2 years, which is slightly higher than the mean age of the victim in city areas (24.7 years).

Regarding specific age group distribution of victims in Coimbatore region, women in the age group of 21 to 25 years constitute 41.9 per cent. Generally Indian women get married at age of 17 to 25 years, and most of the dowry problems arise soon after marriage. When indirect pressures to extract money do not yield the desired result, different tactics are followed by husbands and their parents either by violence or by threat of violence. Naturally in 2 out of 5 cases, the age of the victims is between 21 and 25 years.

If we take the adjacent age group also into consideration, as high as 85.5 per cent of the dowry offences are reported from women who are below 30 years.

Regarding young victims upto 20 years, among districts there is very little difference. Among territories, urban areas have as high as 27.3 per cent of the victims followed by city (20.0 per cent) and rural (14.3 per cent) areas. Regarding adults in the age group of 26 to 30 years, among districts Erode has one-third of the cases. In this age group, the other two districts closely follow the overall average. Among territorial areas, cities report a high percentage of 26.7 and urban areas a low percentage of just 18.1. Rural areas closely follow the overall average. Regarding grown up

adults as well as old persons, Coimbatore district has lower percentage than the average. Erode and Nilgiris districts have markedly higher percentage. Among the territorial areas, cities have only 8.9 per cent of the victims from the old age group, whereas urban areas have 18.2 per cent and rural areas have 17.1 per cent.

Though there is difference in the number of victims in different age groups between districts and territorial areas, the overall difference is not much. Awareness, education, and economic independence also play a crucial role in the behaviour of women.* Very few cases are reported from women in the age group of below 20 years and this reveals that most of the women at this age are too innocent to be aware of the laws related to dowry harassments. So the reported cases are less in number from this age group.

MOLESTATION

The incidence of sexual violence against women is greater in societies that have male-dominated ideologies and a history of violence, as is the case in India. There is no woman who has not suffered at one time or another the harassment, humiliation, exploitation and violence that shadow her sex. A woman's life lies between pleasure at one end and danger at the other end.

* The related case study is given as Case 1 at the end of this chapter.

There has been a phenomenal rise in crime against women.* Molestation is a major crime against women. The dictionary meaning for the term molestation is “to trouble with hostile intention”. When a woman is troubled by a man with hostile intention of sexual harassment, it may be called as sexual molestation. Considering this as a social evil, the judicial system has enacted laws against this evil. Under section 354 of IPC the offenders involved in molestation are penalised. The study focuses on molestation offences reported in Coimbatore region, in police subdivisions of Coimbatore and Erode districts, and the age of victims in reported molestation cases of Coimbatore region.

Molestation Offences in Coimbatore Region

Sexual molestation is seriously viewed in Indian society and strict laws have been enacted against this social evil. Table 8.6 gives the rate of molestations in Coimbatore region which consists of Coimbatore district, Erode district, and Nilgiris district and the territorial areas namely city, urban, and rural.

Table 8.6

Molestation Offences in Coimbatore Region – 2002

Particulars of Areas	Population	No. of Offences	Rate of Offences
Coimbatore District	4224107	79	0.0187
Erode District	2574067	68	0.0264
Nilgiris District	764826	-	-
City Areas	1577664	26	0.0165

* National Crime Record Bureau Report, 1994, 2000, etc. contain details of phenomenal rise in crime against women in India.

Urban Areas	706443	16	0.0226
Rural Areas	5278893	105	0.0199
Coimbatore Region	7563000	147	0.0194

The above table indicates that the rate of molestation in Coimbatore region is 0.0194. Among the two districts where molestation is reported, Erode shows the highest rate of molestation i.e., 0.0264, and Coimbatore district shows the rate of 0.0187. There is no case reported in Nilgiris district. Among the territorial areas urban areas show the highest rate of molestation i.e. 0.0226. This is followed by rural areas, which have the rate of 0.0199, and by city areas, 0.0165.

In other words, Coimbatore region has recorded one molestation for every 51 thousand people. Among the districts Erode district has the highest reported molestation cases i.e., one for every 38 thousand population. Coimbatore district has recorded one molestation for every 53 thousand population. Regarding territorial areas, urban areas have the highest number of reported molestation cases (one for 44 thousand), followed by rural areas (one for 50 thousand), and city areas (one for 60 thousand). Thus, there is a considerable variation among districts and among territorial areas.

The discussion with police officials clearly envisages that the molestation offences are reported more in rural areas because rural women believe that, if they fail to approach the police officials they may fall as easy

prey to the offenders again. Moreover due to the fear of social stigma, some women in rural areas report rape as molestation. Sometimes the police officials also find it difficult to bring out the evidences of medical report, because the assault of rape are not reported soon after its occurrence. So such offences are often recorded as molestations.

Molestation Offences Reported in Coimbatore District

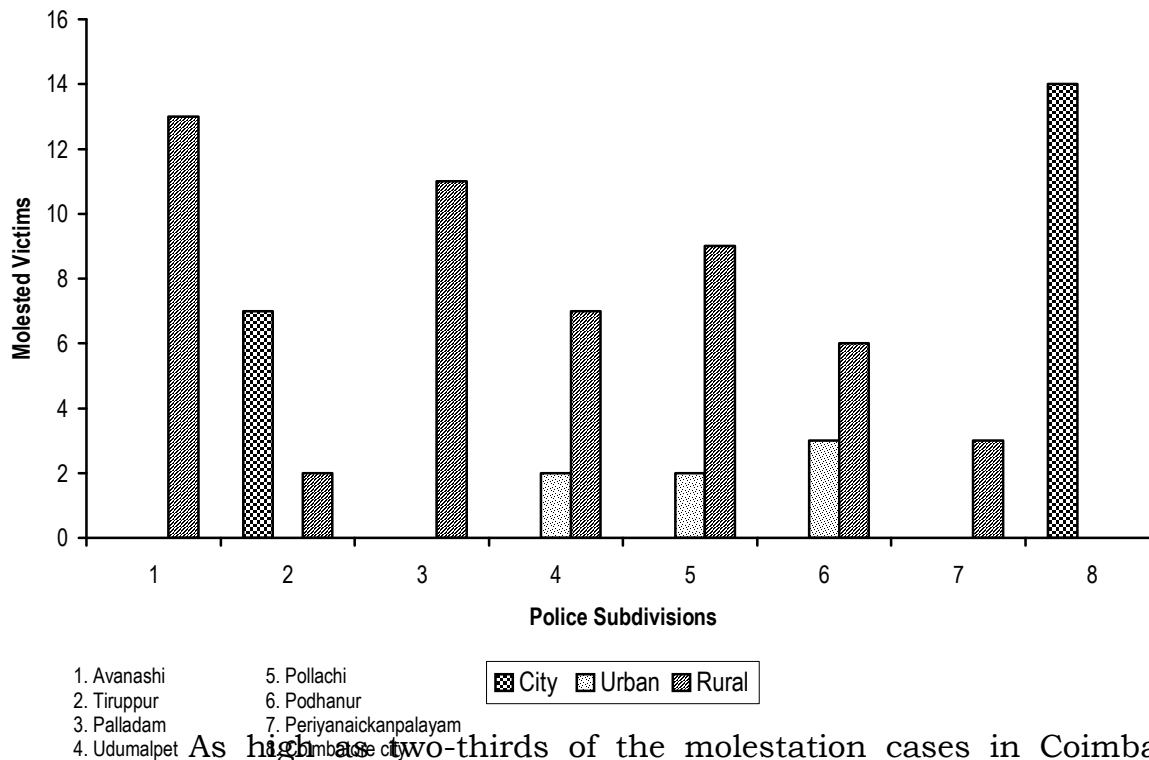
Out of 147 molestation cases 79 of them have taken place in Coimbatore district. Table 8.7 and figure 8.4 give the number of molestations committed in city, urban, and rural areas, which are reported in the eight police sub divisional areas of Coimbatore district. The boundary of the police subdivisions covers city, urban and rural territorial areas of the district.

Table 8.7
Molestation Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District

Police Subdivisions	Molested Victims			Total No. of Cases
	City	Urban	Rural	
Avanashi	–	–	13	13
Tiruppur	7	–	2	9
Palladam	–	–	11	11
Udumalpet	–	2	7	9
Pollachi	–	2	9	11
Podhanur	–	3	6	9
Periyanaickanpalayam	–	–	3	3

Coimbatore City	14	—	—	14
Total	21 (26.6)	7 (8.9)	51 (64.5)	79 (100.0)

Figure 8.4. Molestation Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District



As high as two-thirds of the molestation cases in Coimbatore district are reported in rural areas. In city areas 21 molestation offences have been reported. Among them 14 molestation offences have been reported in Coimbatore city alone. Since Coimbatore city is an industrial area, sexual molestation on women who are working in industries is reported by them with courage and confidence. Urban areas in Coimbatore district show less number of cases that is only 7 reported offences out of 79 total offences.

Molestation Offences Reported in Erode District

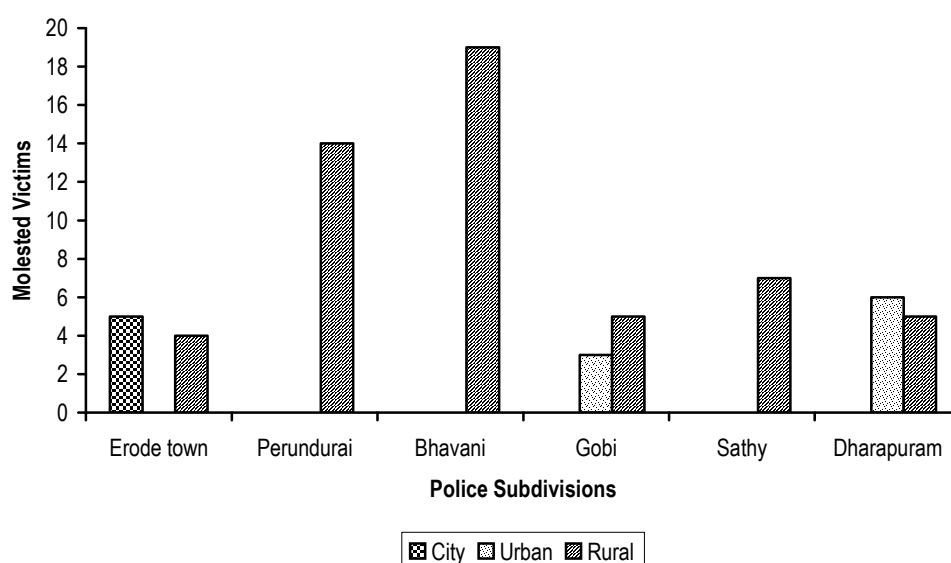
Molestations that have occurred in city, urban and rural areas which come under any one of the six police subdivisional areas namely Erode town, Perundurai, Bhavani, Gobi, Sathy and Dharapuram of Erode district are given in the table 8.8 and figure 8.5.

Table 8.8

Molestation Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District

Police Subdivisions	Molested Victims			Total No. of Cases
	City	Urban	Rural	
Erode town	5	—	4	9
Perundurai	—	—	14	14
Bhavani	—	—	19	19
Gobi	—	3	5	8
Sathy	—	—	7	7
Dharapuram	—	6	5	11
Total	5 (7.4)	9 (13.2)	54 (79.4)	68 (100.0)

Figure 8.5. Molestation Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District



The analysis of the above table reveals that in Erode district totally 68 molestation offences are reported, out of which as high as 79.4 per cent of molestations are reported in rural areas. Only limited number of molestations have been reported in urban and city areas i.e., 9 and 5 molestation offences respectively. Molestation offences reported in rural areas are more in number in proportion to the population of the rural areas in this district.

Age of Victims in Reported Molestation Cases

The age of the victims of molestation offences are classified into young (up to 20 years), youth (21 to 25 years), adult (26 to 30 years), grown up adults (31 to 40 years) and old persons (41 and above years). Table 8.9 gives the frequency distribution of these cases.

Table 8.9
Age Distribution of Victims in Reported Molestation Cases

Particulars of Area	Age of Victims					Total No. of Victims	Mean Age	χ^2 value
	Young Age upto 20yrs	Youth Age 21-25 yrs	Adult Age 26-30 yrs	Grownup Adults 31-40 yrs	Old Persons Age 41 & above yrs			
Coimbatore District	25 (31.6)	15 (19.0)	9 (11.4)	22 (27.8)	8 (10.1)	79 (100.0)	27.9	0.8
Erode District	14 (20.6)	16 (23.5)	10 (14.7)	20 (29.4)	8 (11.8)	68 (100.0)	23.9	
Nilgiris District	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
City Areas	9 (34.6)	9 (34.6)	1 (3.8)	7 (26.9)	-	26 (100.0)	24.2	

Urban Areas	7 (43.7)	2 (12.5)	3 (18.8)	3 (18.8)	1 (6.2)	16 (100.0)	25.4	6.2*
Rural Areas	23 (21.9)	20 (19.0)	15 (14.3)	32 (30.5)	15 (14.3)	105 (100.0)	28.5	
Coimbatore Region	39 (26.5)	31 (21.1)	19 (12.9)	42 (28.6)	16 (10.9)	147 (100.0)	27.4	

* Significant at 5 per cent level.
(Coimbatore Vs Erode districts)
(Rural Vs City, Urban areas)

The above table indicates that the mean age of the victims of molestation in Coimbatore region is 27.4 years. Among the districts of Coimbatore region, the mean age of victims in Coimbatore district is 27.9 years. In Erode district, the mean age is 26.9 years.

Among the territorial areas, rural areas show the highest mean age of victims i.e., 28.5 years. In urban areas, the mean age of the victims of molestation is 25.4 years, which is slightly higher than the city areas where the mean age of victims is 24.2 years.

To test whether there is difference in the age of victims in different districts as well as in territorial areas, the victims are categorized into two groups i.e., young and adult persons. Among the districts, the calculated Chi-square value shows no significant difference whereas among the territories and the age of victims, the Chi-square value 6.2 shows significant difference.

In rural areas even though girls in their teen age are often victimized by sexual molestation, they are reluctant to bring it to the notice of police. They are often afraid of the consequences of approaching the police. Public apathy, police indifference, further harassment by the victimizers - all these factors keep them away from police stations. Women seldom get moral support from their relatives, friends and neighbours who in their mistaken belief think that socializing with them would ruin their reputation in society. Since female literacy is more in city and urban areas, even women in their young age come forward to report the molestation offences.* This is not the case among rural illiterate young women, so relatively less number of cases are reported from them. But rural women are mature enough with age, naturally they come forward to report the incidents of molestation and this has been revealed in more number of reported cases from rural areas.

RAPE

The most shocking crimes against human conscience and morality are the sexual crimes against women. This occupies a significant place in the judicial status of every country. Rape, the worst of crimes committed against women affects the lives of thousands of women every year in many parts of India. It represents the act of violence and humiliation in

* The related case study is given as Case 2 at the end of this chapter.

which the victim experiences not only overwhelming fear for her very existence, but an equally overwhelming sense of powerlessness and helplessness⁹⁵.

In India, the Indian Penal Code has tried to define the crime of rape in extreme meticulous fashion, pertaining to small details also. Rape has been clearly defined in section 375 of the Indian Penal Code, 1860, as follows:

A man is said to have committed “rape”, if he has sexual intercourse with a woman under any of the following six circumstances:

- Firstly : Against her will
- Secondly : Without her consent
- Thirdly : With her consent, when consent has been obtained by putting any person in whom she is interested under threat of death or hurt.
- Fourthly : With her consent, when, the man knows that he is not her husband, and that she gave her consent because she was made to believe that this person to have been legally married to her.
- Fifthly : With her consent, when at the time of giving such consent, by reason of unsoundness of mind or intoxication or the administration by him personally or through any other of any stupefying or unwholesome substance, she is unable to

⁹⁵ I.I. Hilberman, *The Rape Victim* (Basic Books, New York: 1978), p. 116.

understand the nature and consequences of that to which she gives consent.

Sixthly : With or without her consent, when she is under sixteen years of age.

Under 376 of IPC, the punishment is imprisonment for a term which shall not be less than seven years but which may be for life or for a term which may extend to ten years and shall also be liable to fine unless the woman raped is his own wife and is not under twelve years of age, in which case, he shall be punished with imprisonment which may extend to two years or with fine or with both.

Section 376 of IPC has been later inserted with four new sections namely, 376 A, 376 B, 376 C and 376 D which prescribe, whoever, being a police officer or a public servant (376-B of IPC) being on the management or the staff of a jail or remand home, or other place of custody (376-C of IPC), being on the management or on the staff of a hospital (376-D of IPC) commits rape on women shall be punished with rigorous imprisonment for a term which shall not be less than ten years but which may be for life and shall also be liable to fine.

This chapter on crimes against women includes, rape offences reported in Coimbatore region, in police subdivisions of Coimbatore and Erode districts and the age of victims. In Nilgiris district, no single rape case has been recorded. As this district happens to be a place of tourist

attraction, police vigilance is more and this helps to prevent any untoward incident on women.

Rape Offences in Coimbatore Region

Table 8.10 gives the rate of rape in Coimbatore region as a whole and its three districts and territorial areas.

Table 8.10
Rape Offences in Coimbatore Region – 2002

Particulars of Areas	Population	No. of Victims	Rate of Victims
Coimbatore District	4224107	19	0.0045
Erode District	2574067	13	0.0051
Nilgiris District	764826	-	-
City Areas	1577664	3	0.0019
Urban Areas	706443	2	0.0028
Rural Areas	5278893	27	0.0051
Coimbatore Region	7563000	32	0.0042

It is indicated in the above table that in Coimbatore region, the rape offences are at the rate of 0.0042 during the year 2002. Among the districts, Erode district shows the highest rate of rape offences i.e., 0.0051 and Coimbatore district shows 0.0045. Among the territorial areas, rural areas show the highest rate of rape offences i.e., 0.0051 followed by urban areas with the rate of 0.0028, and city areas with the rate of 0.0019.

In other words, for every 2.36 lakh of people, one case of rape is reported in Coimbatore region. Among the districts, Erode district is reported

with one case of rape for every 1.98 lakh of population and Coimbatore district is reported with one case of rape for every 2.22 lakh of population. Among the territorial areas, rural areas are reported high incidents of rape with one case for every 1.95 lakh population. In urban areas, it is one for every 3.53 lakh population whereas in city areas it is one for every 5.25 lakh population.

The normal expectation is that urban people more readily come forward and report offences than rural people. Though rape takes place both in rural and urban areas, in reporting the cases there seems to be a marked difference between them. Discussion with police officials reveals the following reasons for high incidents of rape offences reported from rural areas. Dominance of primary relationship in rural areas makes women aware of persons who involve in rape offences. As a result most of the rape incidents are reported from rural areas. But in urban areas, where the identity of the offender is unknown due to the prevalence of secondary relationships, complaints are seldom made. Moreover in the urban circumstances, opportunities are relatively less to corner women in isolation, whereas in rural areas, opportunities are more to corner young women in the farm, in the cattle shed, in the farm house, in the wasteland or near the bathing ghats. Thirdly, awareness of legal implications and serious nature of rape prevents urban men from committing this offence, whereas the emotional spur of the moment guides the rural youth, who are implicating in these types of offences with less awareness of legal consequences.

Rape Offences Reported in Coimbatore District

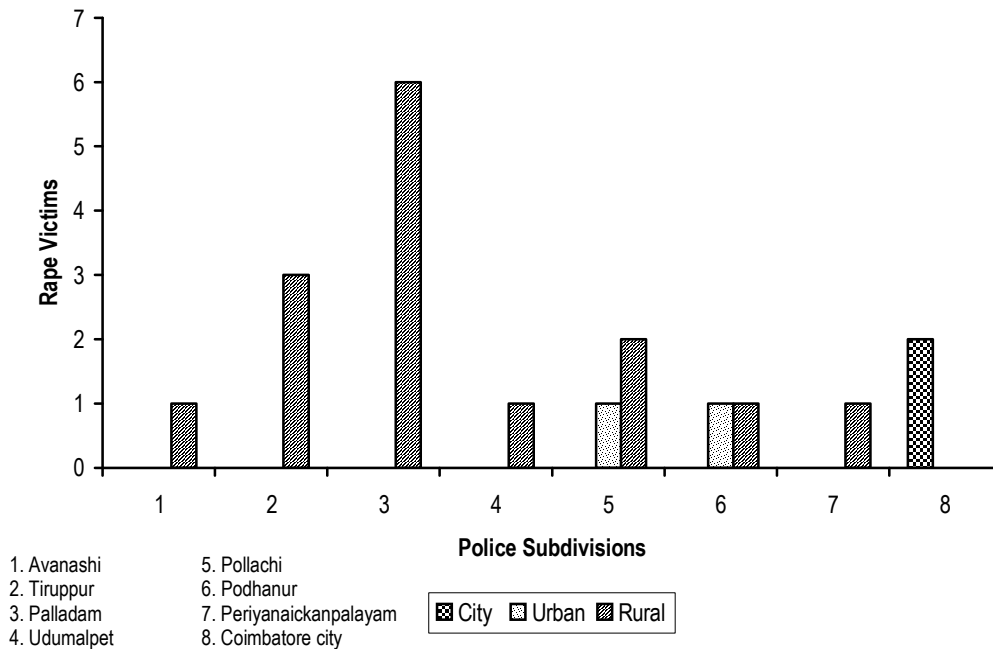
Table 8.11 and figure 8.6 give the number of rape offences reported in police subdivisions namely Avanashi, Tiruppur, Palladam, Udumalpet, Pollachi, Periyanaickanpalayam, and Coimbatore city of Coimbatore region. The rape offences have been reported from city, urban and rural areas that come under any of these subdivisions.

Table 8.11

Rape Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District

Police Subdivisions	Rape Victims			Total No. of Cases
	City	Urban	Rural	
Avanashi	–	–	1	1
Tiruppur	–	–	3	3
Palladam	–	–	6	6
Udumalpet	–	–	1	1
Pollachi	–	1	2	3
Podhanur	–	1	1	2
Periyanaickanpalayam	–	–	1	1
Coimbatore City	2	–	–	2
Total	2 (10.5)	2 (10.5)	15 (78.9)	19 (100.0)

Figure 8.6. Rape Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District



It is given in the above table that 19 rape offences have been reported in all the police subdivisions of Coimbatore district. As high as 78.9 per cent are reported from rural areas. City and urban areas share 10.5 per cent each.

Atrocities committed by upper caste men on lower caste women were large in number in rural areas.* Traditionally such offences were not taken seriously. Even if they were taken seriously, they were settled by the local caste panchayats, which inflicted very minor punishment on upper caste offenders. In recent times, increasing communication facilities make rural women aware of their rights and many of the victims from lower caste seek the help of formal agencies like police and judicial authorities to address their grievances.

Rape Offences Reported in Erode District

The reported offences of rape in police subdivisions namely, Erode town, Perundurai, Bhavani, Sathy, Dharapuram of Erode district are given in the table 8.12 and in the figure 8.7. The frequency distribution shows the occurrence of rape offences in the territorial areas namely city, urban and rural that belong to any of the particular police subdivisional areas.

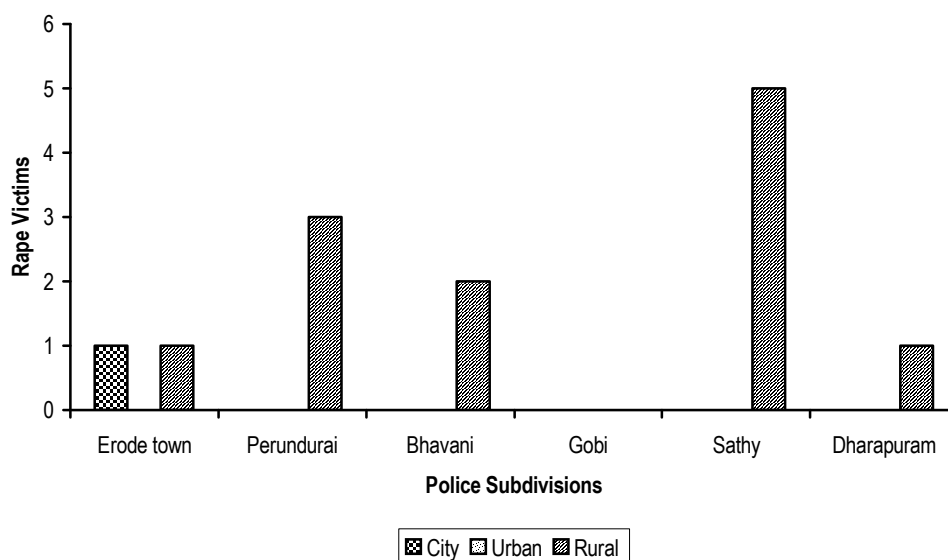
* The annual report of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Commission, Government of India contains a large number of case studies of atrocities committed on Scheduled Castes women. This trend has been continuing year after year since the inception of the commission.

Table 8.12

Rape Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District

Police Subdivisions	Rape Victims			Total No. of Cases
	City	Urban	Rural	
Erode Town	1	–	1	2
Perundurai	–	–	3	3
Bhavani	–	–	2	2
Sathy	–	–	5	5
Dharapuram	–	–	1	1
Total	1 (7.7)	–	12 (92.3)	13 (100.0)

Figure 8.7. Rape Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District



It is observed from the above table that out of 13 reported offences of rape in the police subdivisions of Erode district, as high as 12 rape offences are from rural areas and only one from city area. This reflects the same trend, which prevails in Coimbatore district.

Age of Victims in Reported Rape Cases

In most of the rape cases, the victims happen to be adolescent girls on whom young and middle aged men of sexual adventure force themselves much against the willingness of ladies. Table 8.13 groups the age of victims, into young (up to 20 years), youth (21 to 25 years), adult (26 to 30 years), grown up adults (31 to 40 years) and old persons (41 & above years) in Coimbatore, Erode, and Nilgiris districts as well as in the three territorial areas of Coimbatore region.

Table 8.13
Age Distribution of Victims in Reported Rape Cases

Particulars of Areas	Age of Victims					Total No. of Victims	Mean Age
	Young Age upto 20yrs	Youth Age 21-25 yrs	Adult Age 26-30 yrs	Grownup Adults 31-40 yrs	Old Persons Age 41 & above yrs		
Coimbatore District	14 (73.7)	-	2 (10.5)	3 (15.8)	-	19 (100.0)	20.6
Erode District	5 (38.5)	4 (30.7)	2 (15.4)	2 (15.4)	-	13 (100.0)	22.7
Nilgiris District	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
City Areas	1 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	-	1 (33.3)	-	3 (100.0)	21.3
Urban Areas	2 (100.0)	-	-	-	-	2 (100.0)	19.5
Rural Areas	16 (59.3)	3 (11.1)	4 (14.8)	4 (14.8)	-	27 (100.0)	21.6
Coimbatore Region	19 (59.4)	4 (12.5)	4 (12.5)	5 (15.6)	-	32 (100.0)	21.5

The mean age of raped victims in Coimbatore region is 21.5 years. Among the districts of Coimbatore region, the highest mean age is 22.7 years in Erode district. In Coimbatore district, the mean age of the raped victims is 20.6 years. In Nilgiris district, no rape case is reported during the year 2002. Among the territorial areas of Coimbatore region, rural areas have victims with the highest mean age of 21.6 years, while city areas have victims with the mean age of 21.3 years, and urban areas with 19.5 years.

The reported figures, however, do not give a correct picture of the problems faced by women in this region. A very large percentage of rape cases go unreported either because the victim does not dare to face the shame and humiliation poured on her by society, or because of the disgrace it will bring to her family, or because of threats of retaliation by the rapist, or because of the police harassment.* Many cases are thus hushed up. It is not only the illiterate and the poor but also the educated and the socially advanced victims of rape who are rejected by their own families, and at times forced to become prostitutes. However, increasing women police stations encourage some of the young victims in rural areas to approach police officials.

* The related case study is given as Case 3 at the end of this chapter.

KIDNAPPING/ABDUCTION

Kidnapping is the taking away of or enticing a girl less than 18 years of age or of a male less than 16 years of age without the consent of the lawful guardian. The punishment is imprisonment for 7 years and fine under section 362 of IPC. Abduction is the forcible, fraudulent or deceitful taking away of a woman with an intention of seducing her to illicit sex or compelling her to marry a person against her will under section 363 of IPC. In kidnapping the victims consent is immaterial but in abduction, the victims free and voluntary consent condones the crime. Thus a girl of 18 or over, could only be abducted and not kidnapped; but if she is under 18 she could be kidnapped as well as abducted if the taking is by force or the taking or enticing is by deceitful means.

Aggravated forms of the offence of kidnapping or abduction

Aggravated forms of the offence of kidnapping or abduction are, if any person is kidnapped or abducted in order to commit murder, the punishment is imprisonment for life or rigorous imprisonment for 7 years and fine under IPC section 364.

If kidnap or abduction has happened with intent secretly and wrongfully to confine a person, the punishment is imprisonment for 7 years and fine under section 365 of IPC. Kidnapping or abducting a woman to compel her to marry any person or to force or to seduce her to illicit intercourse, then the punishment is imprisonment for 10 years and fine under IPC section 366.

Moreover, inducing women to go from any place by means of criminal intimidation or abuse of authority or any method of compulsion, in order that she may be forced or seduced to illicit intercourse is also punished under section 366 of IPC. If suppose the same thing happens for a minor girl under the age of 18 years, the person may be punished for 10 years imprisonment and fine under section 366-A of IPC. Importing a girl under 21 years of age from a foreign country with intent that she will be forced or seduced to illicit intercourse is punished under 366-B of IPC for 10 years and fine.

Kidnapping or abducting in order to subject a person to grievous hurt, slavery or unnatural lust is punished under section 367 for 10 years and fine. Wrongfully concealing or confining a person known to have been kidnapped or abducted is punished under section 368 of IPC. The punishment is same as for kidnapping or abduction.

Kidnap/Abduction Offences in Coimbatore Region

The following table 8.14 gives the rate of kidnap/abduction of women during the year 2002 in three districts of Coimbatore region namely, Coimbatore, Erode and Nilgiris, and its territorial areas namely city, urban and rural areas.

Table 8.14

Kidnap/Abduction Offences in Coimbatore Region – 2002

Particulars of Areas	Population	No. of Offences	Rate of Offences
Coimbatore District	4224107	40	0.009
Erode District	2574067	49	0.019
Nilgiris District	764826	-	-
City Areas	1577664	25	0.016
Urban Areas	706443	7	0.010
Rural Areas	5278893	57	0.011
Coimbatore Region	7563000	89	0.012

As could be seen in the above table, the kidnap/abduction rate in Coimbatore region is 0.012. Among the districts, Erode district shows the highest rate of 0.019, whereas in Coimbatore district, the rate is only 0.009. When the territorial areas are compared, it could be seen that in city areas, kidnap/abduction rate is 0.016, whereas in rural and urban areas the rate is 0.011 and 0.010 respectively.

In other words Coimbatore region has recorded one case for every 85 thousand population. Among the districts in Erode district for every 52 thousand population, one case is recorded, whereas in Coimbatore district it is for every 1.05 lakh population.

In city areas though the literacy rate of women is high, they become easy prey to abduction due to their craziness for fame. Sometimes

they are attracted by the quick puck of the celluloid world. These women are easily convinced, cheated, and abducted. Later they are sold as sex workers in big metropolitan centres. In rural areas the young innocent children are mostly kidnapped with an intention of selling them as bonded labour. Some of the poor kids are also kidnapped for begging and for indulging them in prostitution in their later years.

Kidnap/Abduction Reported in Coimbatore District

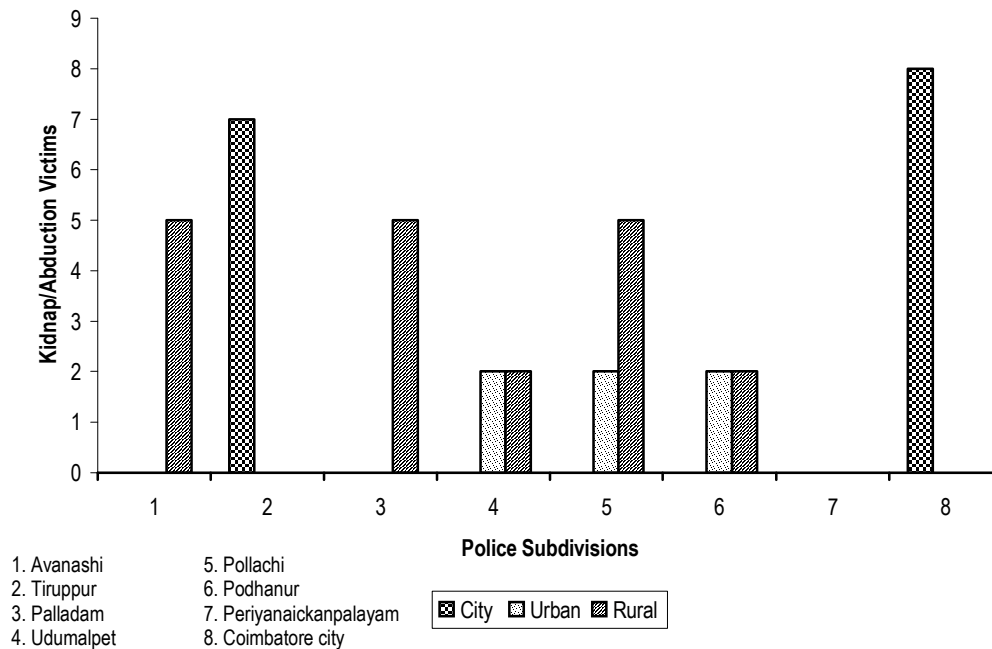
Kidnap/Abduction committed in different territorial areas of Coimbatore district are reported in police stations that come under particular police subdivisions of Coimbatore district. Table 8.15 and figure 8.8 give the number of kidnap/abduction offences that are reported in the police subdivisions of Coimbatore district.

Table 8.15

Kidnap/Abduction Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District

Police Subdivisions	Kidnap/Abduction Offences			Total No. of Cases
	City	Urban	Rural	
Avanashi	–	–	5	5
Tiruppur	7	–	–	7
Palladam	–	–	5	5
Udumalpet	–	2	2	4
Pollachi	–	2	5	7
Podhanur	–	2	2	4
Coimbatore City	8	–	–	8
Total	15 (37.5)	6 (15.0)	19 (47.5)	40 (100.0)

Figure 8.8. Kidnap/Abduction Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Coimbatore District



In Coimbatore district nearly half of the kidnaps/ abductions (47.5 per cent) have been reported from rural areas. From cities 37.5 per cent of kidnap/abduction have been reported and from urban areas, it is only 15.0 per cent.

In rural areas of Coimbatore district, the young girls are mostly kidnapped with an intention of gaining more money. Usually these girls are kidnapped while they are in schools or while they are playing alone. Later these girls are thrown out for begging. Some are even sold for money and they are supposed to lead a miserable life as sex workers. Starvation, gang rape, and forced addiction to narcotic substances make them depend on pimps and procured agencies and they have been forced to remain in the

profession without any choice. In city areas of this district, the young poor girls are kidnapped by sowing the seeds of silver screen desire in them. Craze for fame and name in cinema makes them fall as easy prey to abduction.

Kidnap/Abduction Offences Reported in Erode District

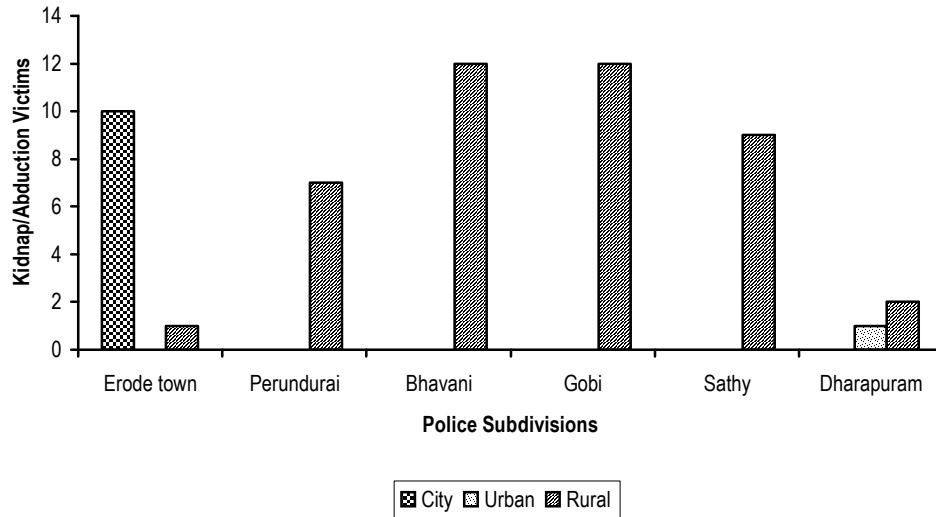
Table 8.16 gives the number of kidnap/abduction reported in the stations that come under police subdivisions namely, Erode, Perundurai, Bhavani, Gobi, Sathy, and Dharapuram of Erode district.

Table 8.16

Kidnap/Abduction Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District

Police Subdivisions	Kidnap / Abduction Offences			Total No. of Cases
	City	Urban	Rural	
Erode	10	–	1	11
Perundurai	–	–	7	7
Bhavani	–	–	12	12
Gobi	–	–	12	12
Sathy	–	–	9	9
Dharapuram	–	1	2	3
Total	10 (20.4)	1 (2.0)	38 (77.6)	49 (100.0)

Figure 8.9. Kidnap/Abduction Offences Reported in Police Subdivisions of Erode District



In Erode district, it could be seen that out of 49 kidnap/abductions that are reported, 38 from rural areas, 10 from city areas and only one from urban areas.

It is inferred that in Erode district, most of the cases are reported from rural areas where literacy rate is low. The illiterate and innocent women are lured with promises of cinema chances by abductors. Sometimes innocent women who fall in romantic love are cheated by ‘fiancées’ and sold to brothel houses.*

* The related case study is given as Case 4 at the end of this chapter.

Age of Victims in Reported Kidnap/Abduction Cases

The age distribution of the victims of kidnap/abduction offences will give an idea of the prime motive of kidnappers. The table 8.17 gives the age distribution of the kidnapped victims are classified into different age groups (children, young, youth, adult, grownup adult and old persons) in three districts of Coimbatore region and its territorial areas.

Table 8.17
Age Distribution of Victims in Reported Kidnap/Abduction Cases

Particulars of Areas	Age of Victims						Total No. of Victims	Mean Age	Age Not Recorded	χ^2 value
	Children upto 15 yrs	Young Age 16-20 yrs	Youth Age 21-25 yrs	Adult Age 26-30 yrs	Grownup Adults 31-40 yrs	Old Persons Age 41 & above yrs				
Coimbatore District	10 (29.4)	18 (52.9)	4 (11.8)	1 (2.9)	-	1 (2.9)	34 (100.0)	17.0	6	15.7*
Erode District	7 (18.9)	9 (24.3)	10 (27.0)	2 (5.4)	7 (18.9)	2 (5.4)	37 (100.0)	22.0	12	
Nilgiris District	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
City Areas	7 (30.4)	9 (39.1)	4 (17.4)	1 (4.4)	1 (4.4)	1 (4.4)	23 (100.0)	18.9	2	0.49
Urban Areas	1 (20.0)	3 (60.0)	-	1 (20.0)	-	-	5 (100.0)	16.0	2	
Rural Areas	9 (20.9)	15 (34.9)	10 (23.3)	1 (2.3)	6 (13.9)	2 (4.7)	43 (100.0)	20.4	14	
Coimbatore Region	17 (23.9)	27 (38.0)	14 (19.7)	3 (4.2)	7 (9.9)	3 (4.2)	71 (100.0)	19.6	18	

* Significant at 5 per cent level.
(Coimbatore Vs Erode districts)
(Rural Vs City, Urban areas)

It is revealed in the above table that the mean age of the victims in kidnap/abduction offences that are reported in Coimbatore region is 19.6

years. Among the districts of Coimbatore region, Erode district shows the highest mean age of the victims as 22.0 years and Coimbatore district has 17.0 years as the mean age of victims.

In Nilgiris district, there has been no kidnap/abduction offences reported during the year 2002.

When the territorial areas of Coimbatore region are compared, it could be seen that the mean age of victims is 20.4 years in rural areas. While city areas show 18.9 as the mean age of the abducted/kidnapped victims, the urban areas have the mean age of 16.0 years. Regarding the age of victims, there is significant difference between Coimbatore and Erode districts in their age distribution.

No such difference is noticed among city, urban, and rural areas.

Discussion with police officials envisages that vice rings operating in large urban areas are frequently exploiting girls from surrounding rural areas. Children by the age group of 14 to 18 years are brought to brothel institution either by force or by kidnapping simply because of their ignorance. Silver screen desire of young girls makes them fall an easy prey to pimps and brokers. Most of the girls come from broken families where there is little parental support.

In some families, either the father is dead, is an alcoholic, or has a mistress, or suffers from poverty. Wrong peer-group influence also plays a major role in enticing young girls away from their parents.

Keeping in view the above findings, it is necessary to suggest some measure to prevent women's abuse and exploitation in our society. Ram Ahuja in his book "Violence Against Women" suggests the following measure that fall into five main categories: 1) socially redefined patriarchal norms and removing general bias, 2) change in women's values and their parents thinking, 3) strengthening women organizations, 4) adopting humanistic approach to victims, and 5) changing criminal justice system⁹⁶.

Case Studies

Case 1

Shanthi, 28 years old, resides in Ramanathapuram of Coimbatore district. She works as a teacher in a private school. She alleged in her complaint that, she was married to Devaraj, 34 years old, who worked as a supervisor in a company. During her marriage her parents gave her 25 sovereigns gold, fifty thousand rupees and some silver vessels as dowry. Devraj's parents were not satisfied with what Shanthi brought as dowry. As a result she was harassed by her husband and his family to bring more dowry. She alleged that her husband, his sister and parents-in-law used to torture her mentally and physically. Moreover, her husband used to abuse and beat her. This made Shanthi to leave her husband's house for her

⁹⁶ Ram Ahuja, *Op. Cit.*, p. 277.

parents' house. Later, her parents, considering the safety of their daughter put her up in the hostel of the school where she was working. Even then her husband met her in the hostel and threatened her to eliminate, if she failed to return to his house. Unable to bear these harassments, Shanthi informed her parents. Then they lodged a complaint about dowry harassments of Devaraj's family members. In the mean time Devaraj also made a complaint in which he narrated that, Shanthi's parents cheated him by way of getting married their daughter to him because she did not attain puberty even at the time of their marriage and he further asserted that this itself was the reason for their separation. The case is still pending before the court.

Case 2

Ramaswamy resides in Saravanampatti of Coimbatore District with his only son Anand Kumar (31 years old). His wife died long ago. Ramaswamy got his son married to Prema (24 years old). Three of them lived alone. As Anand Kumar used to travel often for his business purpose, Prema happened to stay alone with her father-in-law. Few months of her married life went peacefully. Gradually Prema's father-in-law started to molest her in various ways. The intention of father-in-law made her upset. Whenever she attempted to convey the misbehaviour of father-in-law to her husband, he never believed that. So she suffered in silence. As the molestation of her father-in-law exceeded, she left her husband's house and decided to live with her parents. She also firmly informed her husband that

she wanted to live separately with him as she had had enough hard time with her father-in-law. When her husband denied her request, to teach him a lesson, Prema lodged a complaint against her father-in-law for his misdeeds. A case of sexual molestation was booked under section 354 of IPC.

Case 3

Chitra, 27 years old, got married to Selvam (32 years old), who worked in a private company at Palghat in Kerala State. Chitra's father Ganapathy (58 years old) lived with his wife and his only son in the R.S. Puram area of Coimbatore city, where he owned a shopping complex adjacent to his house. When the marriage of Chitra's brother was arranged, she came to Coimbatore two weeks in advance. Her husband and children stayed back in Palghat. A week before marriage, Chitra wanted to go to temple. When she stood alone in the bus stand of R.S. Puram area, a car approached her. Inside the car, Sekar who rented a shop in the shopping complex of Chitra's father was sitting. After a brief conversation, Sekar offered lift to Chitra by saying that he would drop her at the temple. Though at first Chitra refused, then she yielded to his pressure. But Sekar instead of taking her to temple, parked the vehicle in front of a house. When Chitra enquired, he said that it was his sister's house and he had a letter to handover to his sister. He told Chitra to wait in the car itself, as he would return within few minutes. While Chitra was waiting inside the car, a woman came from the house, introduced herself as Sekar's sister, and invited Chitra to come inside the house. With much hesitation Chitra went

inside and she was offered a glass of fresh juice by Sekar's sister. While Chitra was sipping the juice, she felt a whirling sensation and soon fainted. When she recovered from her unconsciousness, she was shocked to learn that she had been cheated and raped by Sekar. Sekar also warned her not to tell this incident to anybody as he had taken video of what had happened. He also intimidated her by saying that, if she informed anybody, he would bring the videocassette to public. Then Chitra left for her house. She did not reveal anything to anybody as her brother's marriage was approaching. Soon after the marriage, she left along with her husband to Palghat. From that day onwards, Selvam noticed some remarkable changes in Chitra's behaviour. He also noticed that Chitra was receiving some anonymous phone calls. Then Selvam requested, pleaded and intimidated Chitra to tell what had happened to her. Chitra had no other way but to tell everything to her husband. At first, Selvam felt angry and humiliated and then he decided to take the matter to the Collector of Coimbatore District. Due to the Collector's initiative, police took action very quickly. The accused (Sekar) was arrested and a case was filed under 376 of IPC. But words cannot express the mental agony and trauma of Chitra who suffered for not the fault of her own.

Case 4

Kowsalya, 19 years old, worked in a spinning mill in Tiruppur area of Coimbatore District. She fell in love with Mohan (25 years old) who was employed in a workshop near the mill. They used to meet daily.

One day, on knowing well that their parents won't accept their marriage, they planned to elope. Then they left for Chennai and stayed in a lodge for a week. Then Mohan took Kowsalya to a house, by saying that it was his relative's house. Mohan asked Kowsalya to be there till he returned, as he had some important work outside. He further told that he would come back as soon as he finished his work. But Mohan did not return as he promised. The unusual circumstances in the house made Kowsalya nervous. As time went on, she came to understand that it was a brothel institute. In due course by way of torturing and beating, Kowsalya, too, had been forced to enter into prostitution. In the mean time Kowsalya's parents lodged a complaint with the police officials in their attempt to search for their missing daughter. A case was filed under section 363 of IPC. When the police officials in Chennai raided the brothel house, where Kowsalya was staying, they rescued Kowsalya and sent her back to her parents. Kowsalya was shocked to understand that she had been cheated and sold simply because of her innocence. After initial reluctance, Kowsalya's parents accepted her half heartedly, and now she lives in mental depression.

CHAPTER 9

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Crime means something more than a mere disobedience to law. Crime is an act, which is both forbidden by law and revolting against the moral sentiments of society. Since all of us are not criminals, crime occurs more often in some areas than in others, it is obvious that the law violating behaviour is distributed unevenly through the social system. Where does crime occur and who are its perpetrators? Sociologists and criminologists tried to answer these questions through various theoretical approaches and research studies. Human ecology is one such approach, which attempts to explain the association of social position and criminal activity. Human ecology studies the inter-relationship of man and his spatial setting. If this ecological approach is applied to criminal behaviour, it will throw some light on the patterns of criminal activities in different parts of the society. Crime can be explored at three possible levels: micro, meso, and macro. Based on this tradition the present macro and micro level research on “Ecological Study of Crime in Coimbatore Region” focuses on the variation in the incidence of crime on the basis of districts and territorial areas in Coimbatore region.

Coimbatore region, one of the rapidly developing areas in Tamil Nadu, consists of Coimbatore, Erode, and Nilgiris districts. The marked difference between the districts in their density, administrative area, and territorial (city, urban and rural) variations within the districts has made the researcher study crime and its pattern in this region. This is a descriptive study based on primary and secondary data. To analyse the trend of crime over a period of time, the recorded data for a period of ten years have been taken up by the researcher. To understand the spatial distribution of crime, the First Information Report (FIR) of various police stations of Coimbatore region for the year 2002 has been the primary source. To analyse the personality profile of criminals and to enrich the data, interviews have been conducted with the police officials. A few case studies of peculiar criminal activities have also been made by the researcher by making extensive field trips to observe and understand the nature of crime and criminals. Thus secondary data from police stations, content analysis from records, case studies, depth interviews, field observation and discussions are the tools of data collection. The research findings of the study on “Ecological Study of Crime in Coimbatore Region” are summarized as follows.

Coimbatore region consists of three districts. Coimbatore district, which has the highest industrial and urban growth; Erode district which has a major portion of rural population; and the Nilgiris district which has beautiful and isolated hilly areas known for their attraction. The marked differences between the districts made the researcher study crime and its pattern in this region. The analysis reveals the following findings.

The trend analysis of crime over a period of ten years in Coimbatore region shows decreasing trend of crime rate with a few fluctuations. Although the causes of these periodic fluctuations vary, police officials tend to attribute recent changes to economic conditions, political will and strict police vigilances. In Coimbatore district, the crime rate was 3.11 in the year 1993 and by 2002 the crime rate came down to 2.09. This general trend is also reflected in other districts of the region. The spatial spread of crime in terms of the districts and territories indicates that there is a positive association between density of population and overall crime rate. As a result, cities have high rate of crime followed by urban and rural areas of the region. But variation can be noticed as far as some cognizable offences are concerned like molestation, burglary, murders for gain etc.

In order to bring out variability in criminal behaviour on the basis of territorial areas, the researcher surveyed the cognizable offences such as property offences, grave offences and crimes against women, reported from Coimbatore region during the year 2002. The demographic analysis reveals the nature of criminals involved in these offences. The present analysis of property crimes restricted to four major specified crimes under IPC such as theft, burglary, dacoity and robbery.

In Coimbatore region as a whole the theft rate is 0.37 per 1000 population. Among the three districts, Coimbatore has the highest theft rate. When territorial areas are compared, the highest theft rate of 0.99 in cities and the lowest theft rate of 0.17 in rural areas have been reported.

The timings of theft reveal that in Nilgiris district thefts are largely committed during night, whereas in city and urban areas of Coimbatore and Erode districts the thefts are committed largely during day. In the analysis of the gender of the accused involved in thefts, a significant difference has been observed among districts and also among territorial areas. The analysis of the number of the accused involved in each theft reveals that a single person is involved in 70 per cent of the cases and two persons in 22 per cent of the cases. Three or more persons are involved in only 7.4 per cent of the reported cases in Coimbatore region. The number of the accused involved in thefts shows significant difference among districts but not among territorial areas. When the age of the accused involved in thefts is considered, the mean age is 26.3 years and there is a significant difference among districts and also among territorial areas. The properties like cash, vehicle, and jewels are the primary target for the thieves in city and urban areas. In rural areas, cattle and agricultural products are also stolen in addition. In Erode and Nilgiris districts, electric goods are stolen more than jewels.

The rate of burglary reveals that in Erode district, the rate is 0.08, which is comparatively low. In all the three districts of Coimbatore region, burglaries occur more in suburban (which comes under urban limits) and middle class residential areas and less in rural and densely populated city areas. Night is the most preferred time for burglars and three-fourth of the cases have occurred during night. Men are involved in 98.4 per cent of burglaries and women in 1.5 per cent. As in theft, in burglary, single and two persons involvement is

considerably very high. Only in 9.5 per cent of cases 3 or more persons are involved. Territorial areas differ in the number of persons involved in burglaries. Cities have more and rural areas have less number of the accused per case. Regarding the mean age of the accused in burglary, the differences among the districts and among territories are statistically significant. The types of property stolen by burglars reveal that jewels are stolen in as high as 26.4 per cent and 27.0 per cent of the reported cases in both Coimbatore and Erode districts respectively, whereas in Nilgiris district, cash is stolen in large number of cases. Among the territorial areas, jewels and cash are stolen in large number of burglaries in city and urban areas.

Dacoity is another property offence, which shows the highest rate of 0.0039 in Nilgiris district, and among the territorial areas, the highest dacoity rate of 0.0034 is recorded in rural areas. Regarding the timings of the occurrence of dacoity, Coimbatore has the highest percentage of occurrence (36.4 per cent) during day and Erode has the highest percentage (75.0 per cent) of occurrence during night. Among the territorial areas, three-fourths of the dacoities have been committed during night in rural and urban areas. However, in cities all dacoities have been committed during day. The mean number of persons involved in dacoity is 7.0 persons in Coimbatore region. Among the districts, Erode shows the highest mean of 8.0 persons. Among the territories, rural areas have the highest mean of 7 persons. All dacoities have been committed only by men. There is a

significant difference in the age distribution of dacoits among districts and also among territorial areas. The properties looted by dacoits indicate that in one-third of the reported cases cash alone is looted. In 22.7 per cent of the cases, gold with cash, and vehicles have been looted in Coimbatore region. Among districts also similar trend is seen. In terms of territory, cash has been looted in large number of cases in city areas, and automobiles in urban areas. In rural areas cash, vehicle, cattle and agricultural products have been looted by dacoits.

Robbery is another important property offence, and 67 cases were recorded in Coimbatore region during the year 2002. The rate is high (0.0116) in Coimbatore district. Among the territorial areas, urban areas show the highest robbery rate of 0.0170. The timings of robbery show no significant difference among districts as well as among territorial areas. The mean number of the accused is 2.1 persons in Coimbatore region. Erode district has the highest mean number of 3.6 persons and Nilgiris has the lowest mean number of 1.0 person. The mean age of robbers is 26.7 years in Coimbatore region. The age of robbers shows no difference among the districts. The prime target of robbers happens to be jewels and cash in Coimbatore region.

As far as property offences are concerned, thefts, burglaries and robberies are committed more in Coimbatore district than in Nilgiris and Erode districts. Dacoity is the only property offence, which is committed

more in Nilgiris district. Among territorial areas thefts are reported more from city areas. While burglaries and robberies are reported more from urban areas, dacoities are reported more from rural areas. The mean number of persons involved in dacoity is 7.0, which is higher than other property offences. The mean age of persons involved in all property offences ranges from 24 to 32 years. While vehicles are stolen in large number of theft cases, jewelries are the most sought item by the burglars. Cash, gold and vehicle are looted by dacoits and robbers in most of the cases. Male persons are predominant in all the four property offences. The timewise analysis of property offence reveals that more theft is committed even during day in Coimbatore and Erode districts. Similarly among territorial areas, city and urban areas show the highest percentage of thefts during day. Robbery is another property offence, which has been committed more even during day in city areas of Coimbatore region. On the other hand, night is the preferred time for burglars and dacoits in all the three districts and territorial areas of Coimbatore region. The subdivisionwise and stationwise spatial spread of property offences concludes that thefts are more in city areas. Burglaries and dacoities are more in urban and rural areas.

The analysis of grave offences, which include both murder for gain and murders for other purposes in Coimbatore region, indicates the following findings.

The analysis of cognizable offence, murder for gain, reveals that in Coimbatore region, the rate is 0.0012. In Coimbatore and Erode districts, the rates are 0.0014 and 0.0012 respectively. Among territorial areas, urban areas show the highest rate of 0.0014. 2 out of 3 reported murders in Erode district have occurred only during night, whereas in Coimbatore district, the offences have taken place both during day and night. The mean number of the accused involved in committing murder for gain is 1.5 persons in Coimbatore region. Among the districts, Coimbatore district has 1.6 persons, which is followed by Erode district where the mean number of the accused is 1 person. Among territorial areas, urban areas show the highest mean number of the accused (2 persons) involved in murder for gain. The mean age of the accused in murder for gain is 28.5 years in Coimbatore region. It is 39.0 years in Coimbatore district, which is the highest. Among territorial areas, rural areas show the highest mean age of 34.7 years. Out of 6 cases, half of the murders have been committed for cash in Coimbatore district, whereas in Erode district, out of 3 murders 2 have been committed for gold, and the remaining one case for cash. In the territorial areas also, murders for gain are mostly committed for cash and jewels.

Murder is also committed for other purposes due to various reasons such as dispute, vengeance, previous enmity, etc. The rate is highest (0.0275) in Nilgiris district. Among territorial areas, urban areas have the highest rate of murder for other purposes (0.0212). The mean

number of the accused involved in committing murder for other purposes is 2.1 persons in Coimbatore region. Among the districts in Erode district, it is 2.3 persons followed by Coimbatore and Nilgiris districts with mean number of 2.1 and 1.6 persons respectively. Among the territorial areas, urban areas show the highest mean number of 2.5 persons. Regarding the age distribution of the accused, the highest mean age is 36.3 years in Erode district. Among territorial areas, city areas show the highest mean age of the accused as 36.0 years.

The districtwise analysis of grave offences indicates that the rate of murders for gain is high in Coimbatore district, and murder for other purposes, in Nilgiris district. The incidences of both murder for gain and murder for other purposes were more in rural areas followed by city and urban areas. The mean age of the accused in murder for gain cases is 28.5 years and for murder for other purposes, it is 33.2 years in Coimbatore region. Cash and jewels were looted in most of the cases by murderers. Men dared to commit more number of murders than women.

The study on crimes against women in Coimbatore region includes dowry, rape, molestation, kidnap/abduction offences which reveal some interesting findings. Despite the existence of a number of special legislations for providing protection to women, crimes against women have increased. Women continue to be victims of various types of crimes. Although women may be victims of any of the crimes such as murder,

robbery, cheating, etc., the crimes, which are directed specifically against women, are characterized as 'crime against women'.

The analysis of dowry offences in Coimbatore region concludes that for every 46 thousand population, one dowry offence is reported. Among the districts, Nilgiris has reported more number of dowry offences, that is, for every 36 thousand population one case is reported. Regarding territories, in urban areas, a very high incidence of one case for every 10 thousand population has been reported. In Coimbatore district the police subdivisionwise analysis of dowry offences indicates that as high as 44 cases are reported from city areas. In Erode district also as high as 43.3 per cent cases have been reported from urban areas. Similarly in Nilgiris district, more dowry offences are reported from urban areas (81.0 per cent). The analysis of the age of victims concludes that among districts, Nilgiris shows the highest mean age of victims as 26.1 years. Among territorial areas, rural areas show the highest mean age of victims as 25.5 years.

The analysis of molestation shows 0.0194 as the molestation rate in Coimbatore region. Among districts, Erode shows the highest rate of molestation i.e. 0.0264. Among territories, urban areas show the highest rate i.e. 0.0226. When molestation offences reported in police subdivisions of Coimbatore district are analysed, in rural areas of Coimbatore district, as high as 64.5 per cent of molestation cases are reported. In Erode district also, more than three-fourths (79.4 per cent) of the molestations are reported in rural areas. The age of victims reveals that the mean age is 27.9 years in

Coimbatore district. Among territorial areas, rural areas show the highest mean age of 28.5 years.

The analysis of the rate of victims in the reported rape cases reveals that Erode district has the highest rate (0.0051). In other words, for every 1.98 lakh population, one case is reported. Among territorial areas, rural areas have reported high incidence i.e., 1 case for every 1.95 lakh population. In Coimbatore district as high as 78.9 per cent of the rape incidents that are reported have been committed in rural areas. Similarly in Erode district as high as 12 out of 13 have been committed in rural areas. The age of victims in reported rape cases reveals that Erode district has the highest mean age of 22.7 years. Among territorial areas, rural areas have the highest mean age of 21.6 years.

The rate of kidnap/abduction is 0.012 in Coimbatore region. Among districts, Erode shows the highest kidnap/abduction rate of 0.019. Among the territorial areas, city areas show the highest kidnap/abduction rate of 0.016. In Coimbatore district, nearly half (47.5 per cent) of the total kidnaps/abductions are reported from rural areas. In Erode district also as high as 77.6 per cent of the kidnap/abduction cases from rural areas alone. The age of victims reveals that in Erode district, the mean age of victims is 22.0 years, which is the highest. Among territorial areas, rural areas show the highest mean age of victims as 20.4 years.

The following interpretation can be given from the above analysis of crimes against women in Coimbatore region. While dowry rate is more in

Nilgiris district, molestation, rape and kidnap/ abduction rate is more in Erode district. Subdivisionwise analysis of crimes against women in each district indicates that, more number of dowry offences are reported in urban areas. While molestation and rape offences are reported more in rural areas, kidnap/abduction offences are reported more in city and rural areas. The age of the victims who suffer from dowry and molestation offences ranging from 23 to 29 years, and the age of the victims suffering from rape and kidnap/abduction offences ranging from 16 to 22 years. It shows that women at their tender age suffer from these kinds of atrocities i.e. rape and kidnap/abduction because of their innocence.

Many research works and theories are framed, but until now, there is no clear agreement about the origins of criminal motivation. However, with the support of ecological theories of crime, the present research brings about the variation in the incidence of crime on the basis of districts and territorial areas. City areas with high concentration of population prove to be crime-prone areas in Coimbatore region.

The result indicates that demographic composition provides a good statistical explanation of property crimes, violent crimes and crimes against women, i.e. age and sex do have a significant effect on criminal activities. In other words environment variables interact with demographic variables in the creation of high crime areas. Mapping was used as a research tool for data analysis in this present study. By mapping, the

concentrations of property offences were identified per police boundary, which will give future directions to police departments for the prevention of such offences. The present study proves that ecological factors have something to do with the crime pattern of the particular area. If similar studies are carried out with special consideration on spatial location of crimes in other parts of South India, it is of immense use not only to social scientists but also to law enforcement officials and policy makers as well.

Actions Recommended to Combat Crime

In the case of petty offences like snatching, pocket picking etc., in the crowded localities the passersby do not go to the help of the victim out of being hurt by the thief. Timely presence and intervention of the police through rapid deployment in the spot through mobile force may help to reduce such offences.

Victims of dowry harassment, molestation, and rape etc., often stay back at home due to the lack of knowledge on legal awareness. This encourages the criminals to commit more such offences. Therefore it is suggested that, judicial officials could volunteer to run legal help clinics and organise awareness camp on this issues through knowledge dissemination. This could be attempted through existing institutional arrangements as well as NGOs.

Many police personnel do not readily record first information report. Since the pressure to detect and book the offences fall on the police personnel and higher ups always insist on the target of prosecution of instances of cases registered. Therefore in the normal course certain amount of hesitation and reservation is there to register cases instantly. Among the public one of the common grievance is refusal to register FIR by the local police. The police administration is suggested to evolve a method of registering every one of the complaints being lodged by the general public.

Scope for Further Research

1. The present study is a macro analysis. On each type of crime qualitative research based on micro analysis of criminals may be carried out to know the operations of criminal activity in different areas.
2. In the hill areas of Nilgiris district especially in tea plantation migrant labourers from the plains and refugees from Colombo have been rehabilitated. There is constant friction between the native labourers and these migrant labourers. The researcher has observed alienation and hostility. Social research on the adjustment between the natives and migrants is suggested so that administration can modify these strategies and bring harmony in the settlements.

3. Micro analytical study on victims of various offences would reveal their problems and their living conditions. The studies on such issues could make it easy for taking rehabilitation measures.
4. A detailed study on crime spots using GIS (Geographic Information System) may bring to light the crime prone areas and the criminal operations. This type of studies may help to reduce criminal tendencies.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

- Atchuthen Pillai, P.S. *Criminal Law*, Eighth Edition. New Delhi: Tripathy Private Limited, 1995.
- Brantingham, P. and Brantingham, P. *Environmental Criminology*. Beverly Hills: Sage, 1987.
- Brearily. *Homicide in the United States*. University of North, Chapel Hill: Carolina Press, 1969.
- Carey James, T. *An Introduction to Criminology*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1978.
- Chandrasekar. *Juvenile Delinquency in India*. Delhi: Daya Publishing House, 1987.
- Cloward, R.A. and Ohlin, L.E. *Delinquency and Opportunity, A Theory of Delinquent Gangs*. New York: Free Press, 1960.
- Cressy, D.R. and Sutherland, E.H. *Criminology*, 10th Edition. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1978.
- Dasgupta Barun. *Insurgents Involved in Drug Trafficking*. New Delhi: Link, 1988.
- Durkheim Emile. *The Rules of Sociological Method*. New York: Free Press, 1966.
- Fox, J.A. *Forecasting Crime Data*. Lexington Mass: Lexington Books, 1979.

APPENDIX 1

1. **Avanashi Sub Division**

- 1.1. Avanashi
- 1.2. Cheyur
- 1.3. Perumanallur
- 1.4. Karumathapatti
- 1.5. Annur
- 1.6. Koilpalayam

2. **Tiruppur Sub Division**

- 2.1. Tiruppur South
- 2.2. Tiruppur North
- 2.3. Tiruppur Rural
- 2.4. Annupparpalayam
- 2.5. Mangalam

3. **Palladam Sub Division**

- 3.1. Palladam
- 3.2. Kumaranaickanpalayam
- 3.3. Avaram Palayam
- 3.4. Negamam
- 3.5. Sulur

4. **Udumalpet Sub Division**

- 4.1. Udumalpet
- 4.2. Dhali
- 4.3. Gudimangalam
- 4.4. Gomangalam
- 4.5. Madathukulam
- 4.6. Komaralingam

5. **Pollachi Sub Division**

- 5.1. Pollachi East
- 5.2. Pollachi West
- 5.3. Pollachi Taluk
- 5.4. Mahalingapuram
- 5.5. Vadakkipalayam
- 5.6. Anaimalai
- 5.7. Kottur
- 5.8. Valparai
- 5.9. Mudis
- 5.10. Kadamparai

6. **Podhanur Sub Division**

- 6.1. Poddanur
- 6.2. Chettipalayam
- 6.3. Madukkarai
- 6.4. Perur
- 6.5. Thondamuthur
- 6.6. Vadavalli
- 6.7. Alanthurai
- 6.8. Karunya Nagar
- 6.9. Kinathukadavu

7. **Periyanaickenpalayam Sub Division**

- 7.1. Mettupalayam
- 7.2. Sirumugai
- 7.3. Karamadai
- 7.4. Pillur Dam
- 7.5. Periyanaickenpalayam
- 7.6. Thudiyalur

8. **Coimbatore City**

APPENDIX 2

Figure 3.1. Location of the Area of Study

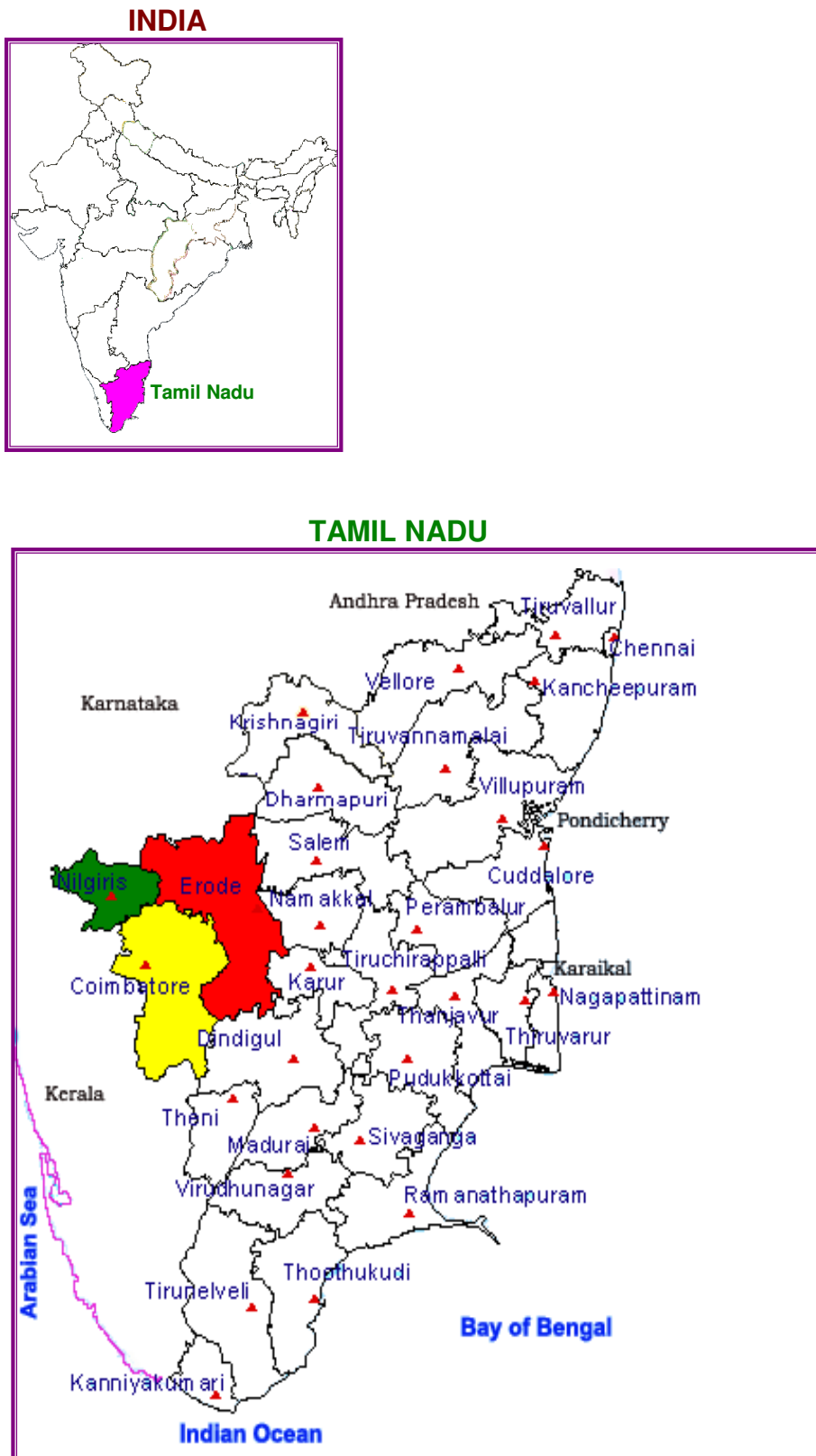
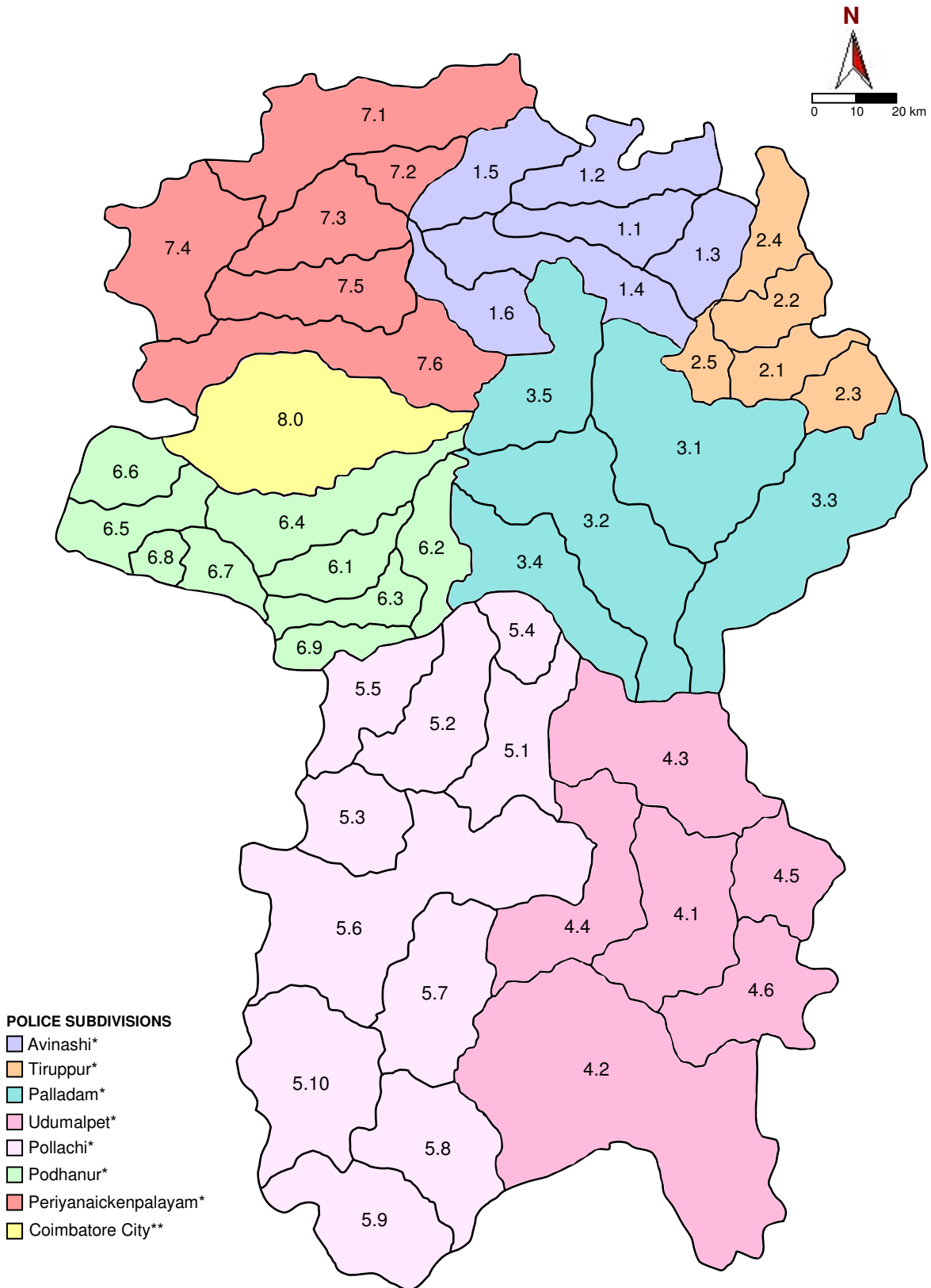


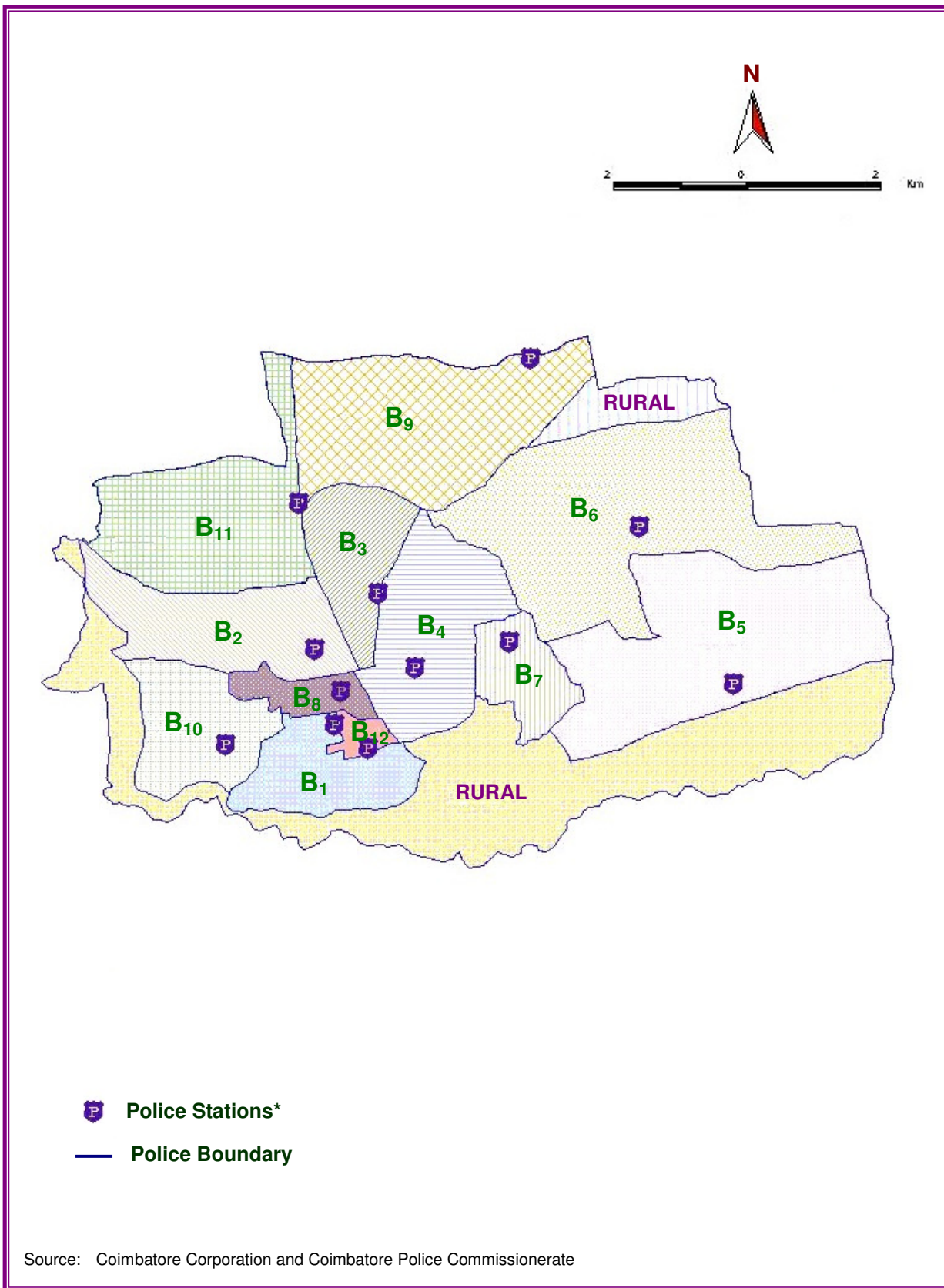
Figure 3.2. Location of Police Subdivisions and Stations in Coimbatore District



Source: Coimbatore District Crime Record Bureau

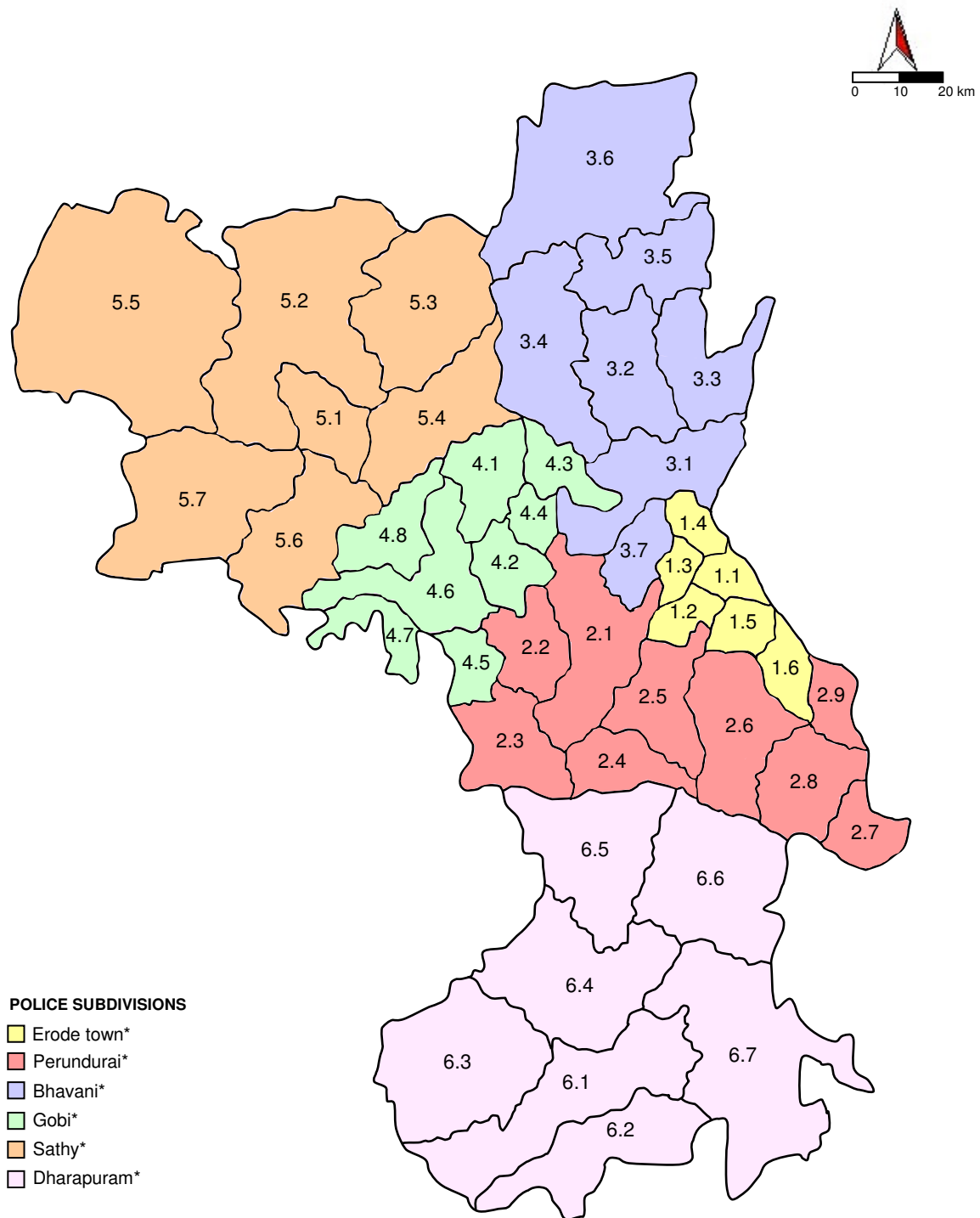
- * Names of police stations and subdivisions are given in Appendix-I.
- ** Names of police stations in Coimbatore city are given in Appendix-II (Locations of police stations are shown in Figure 3.3).

Figure 3.3. Location of Police Stations in Coimbatore City



* Names of police stations are given in Appendix A

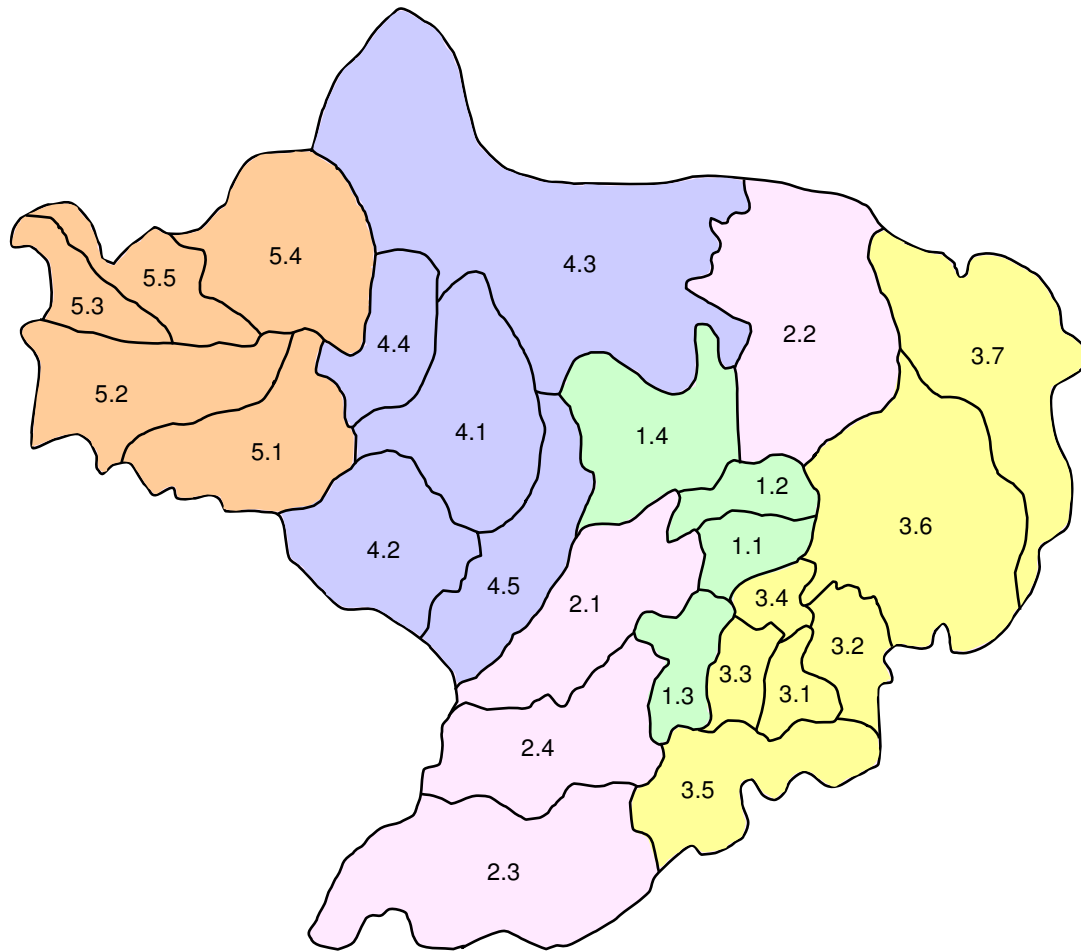
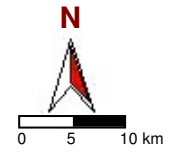
Fig. 3.4. Location of Police Subdivisions and Stations in Erode District



Source: Erode District Crime Record Bureau

* Names of police stations and subdivisions are given in Appendix-III.

Figure 3.5. Location of Police Subdivisions and Stations in Nilgiris District



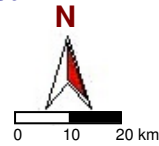
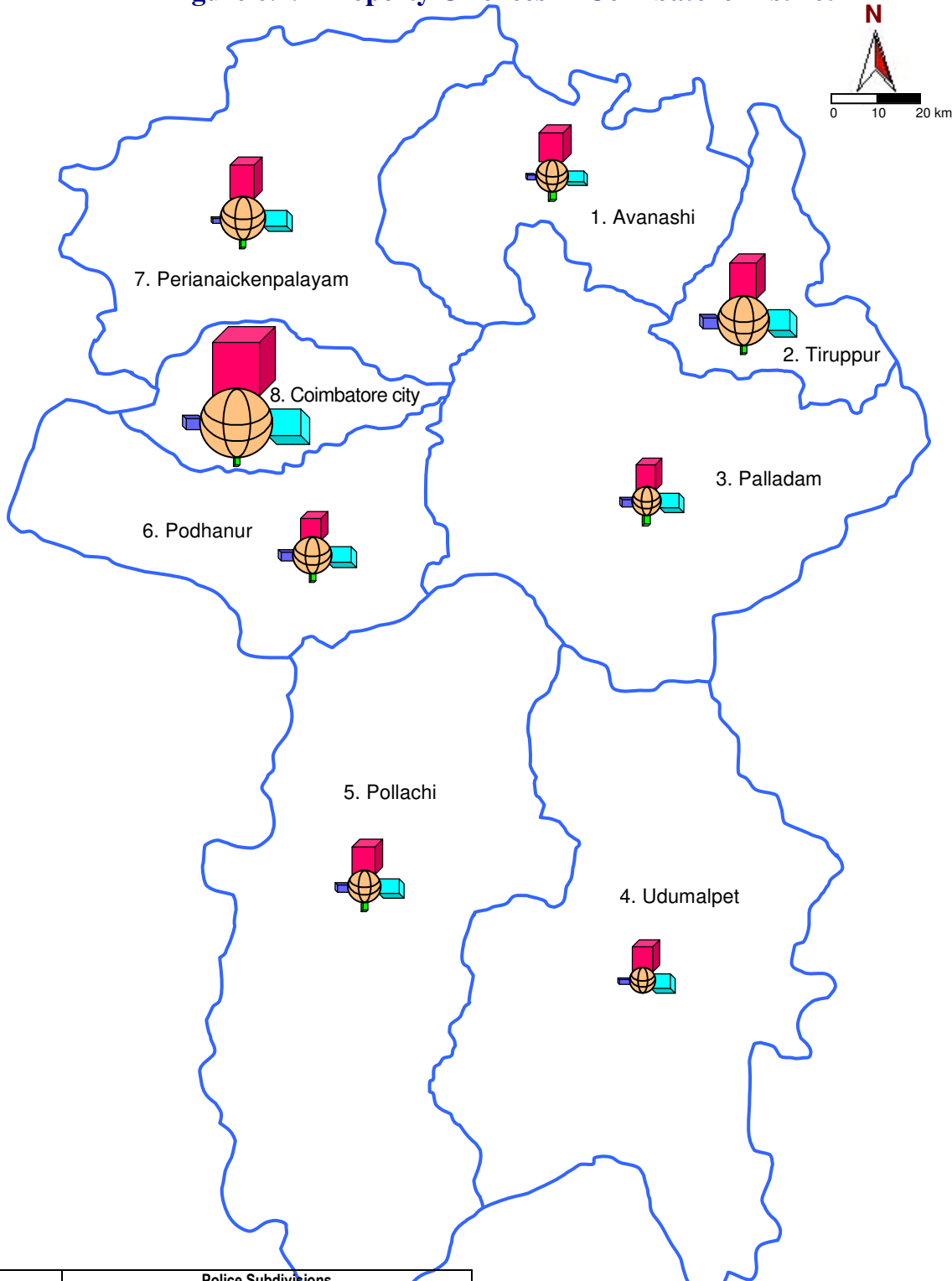
POLICE SUBDIVISIONS

- Ooty*
- Ooty rural*
- Coonoor*
- Gudalur*
- Devala*

Source: Nilgiris District Crime Record Bureau

* Names of police stations and subdivisions are given in Appendix-IV.

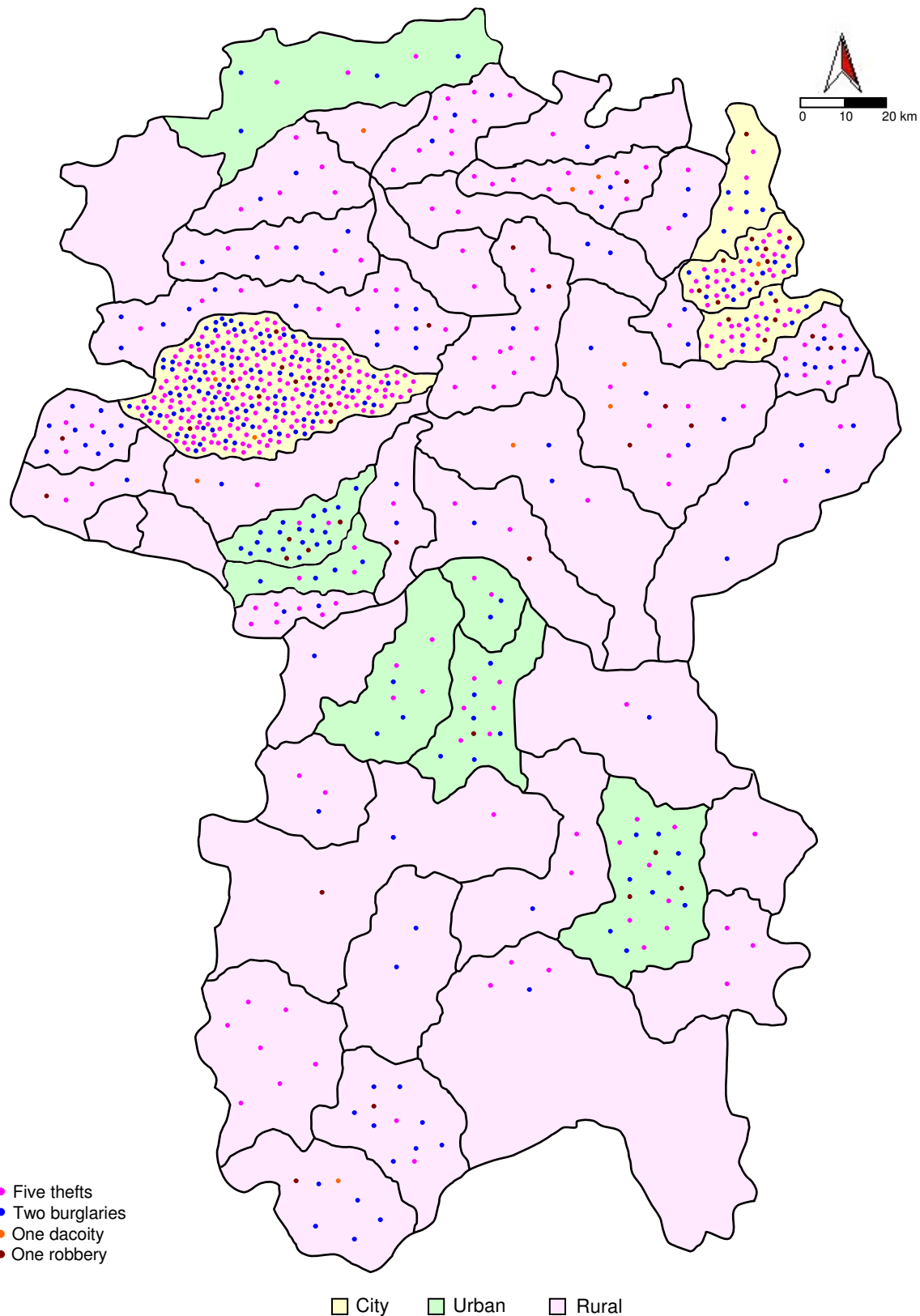
Figure 6.7. Property Offences in Coimbatore District



Types	Police Subdivisions							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Theft	125	313	100	91	95	87	137	1067
Burglary	25	70	31	27	57	81	50	184
Dacoity	2	1	3	-	1	1	1	2

Source: Coimbatore District Crime Record Bureau

Figure 6.8. Spatial Spread of Property Offences in Coimbatore District



Source: Coimbatore District Crime Record Bureau

Figure 6.9. Property Offences in Erode District

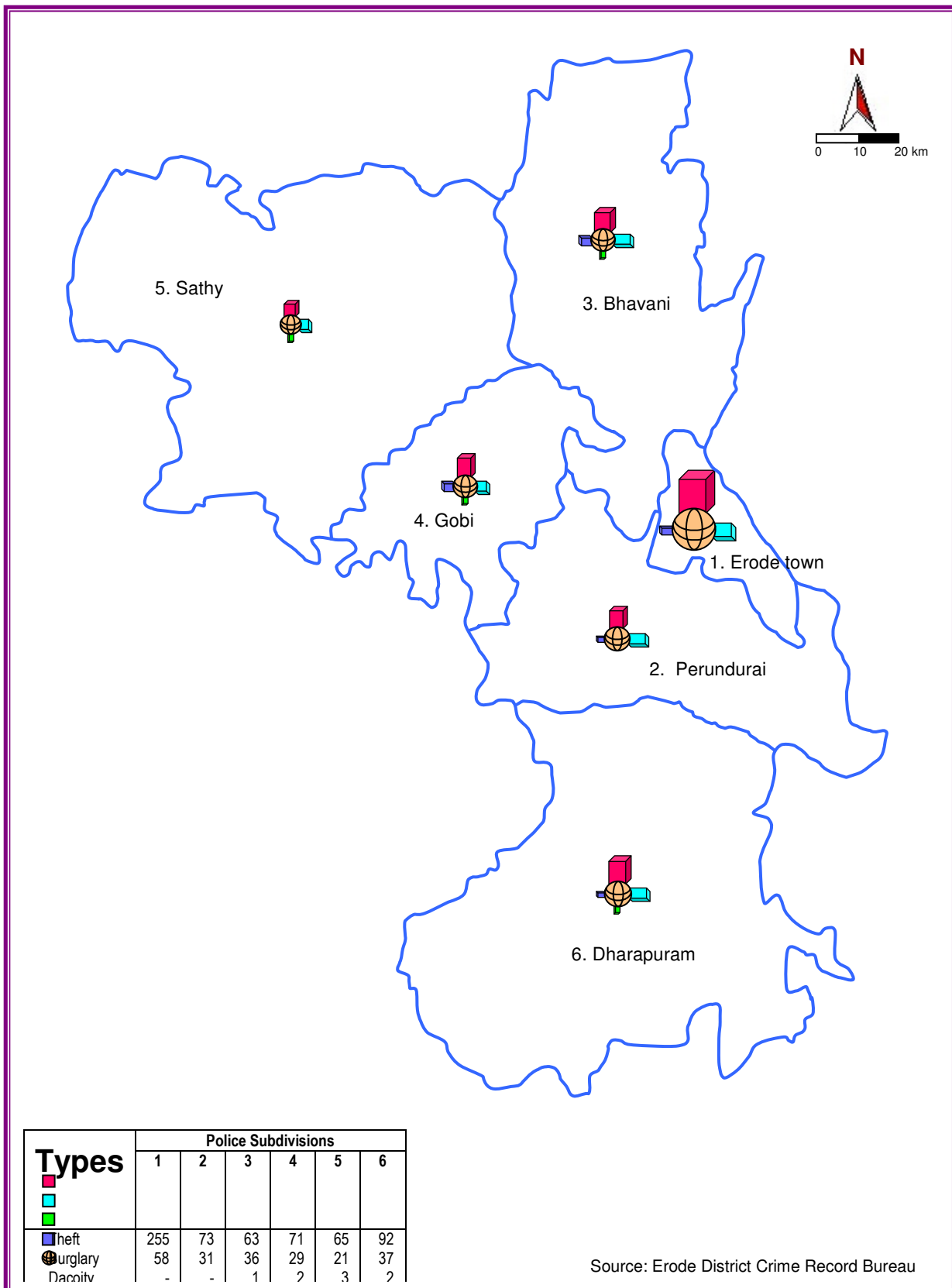
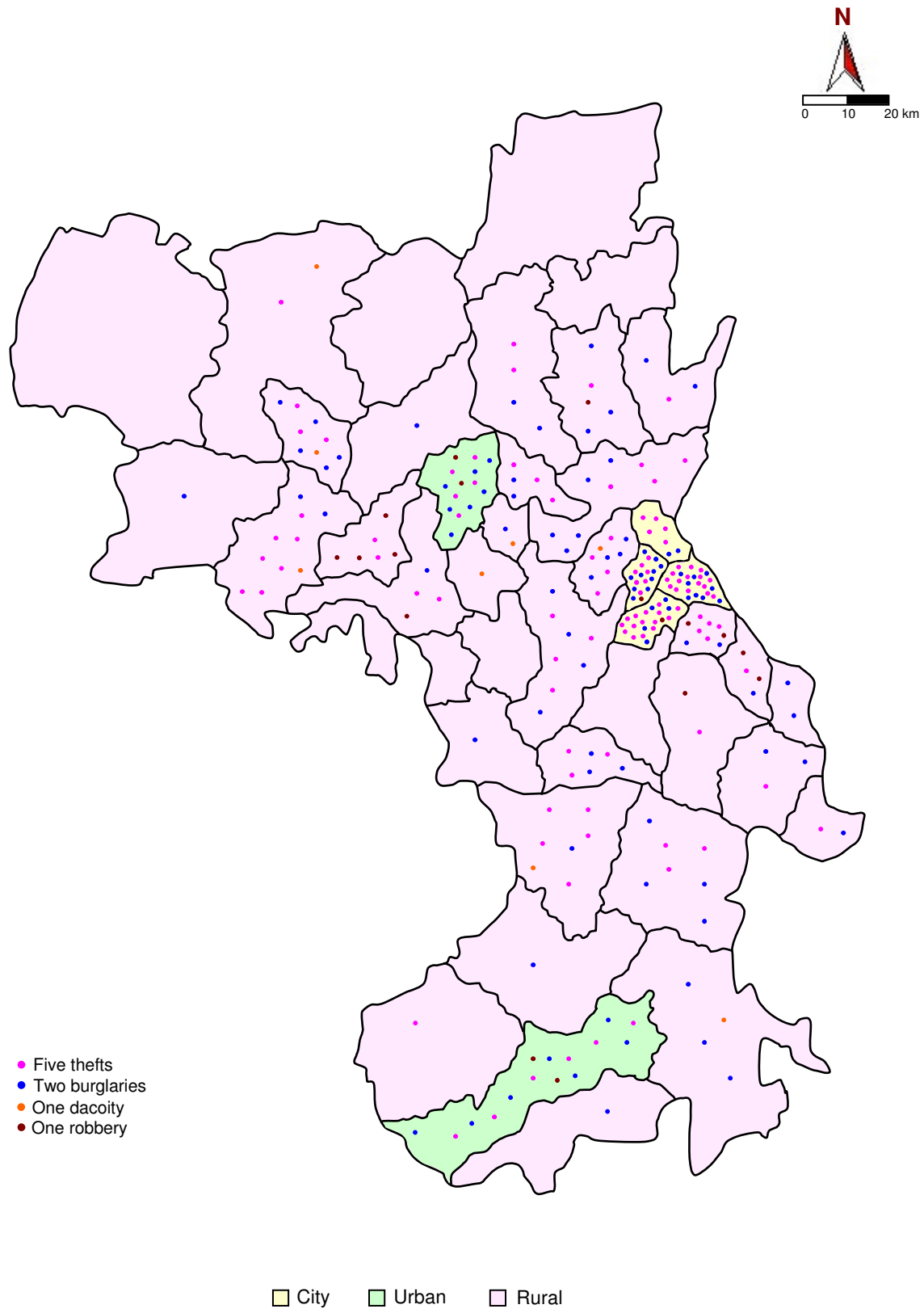
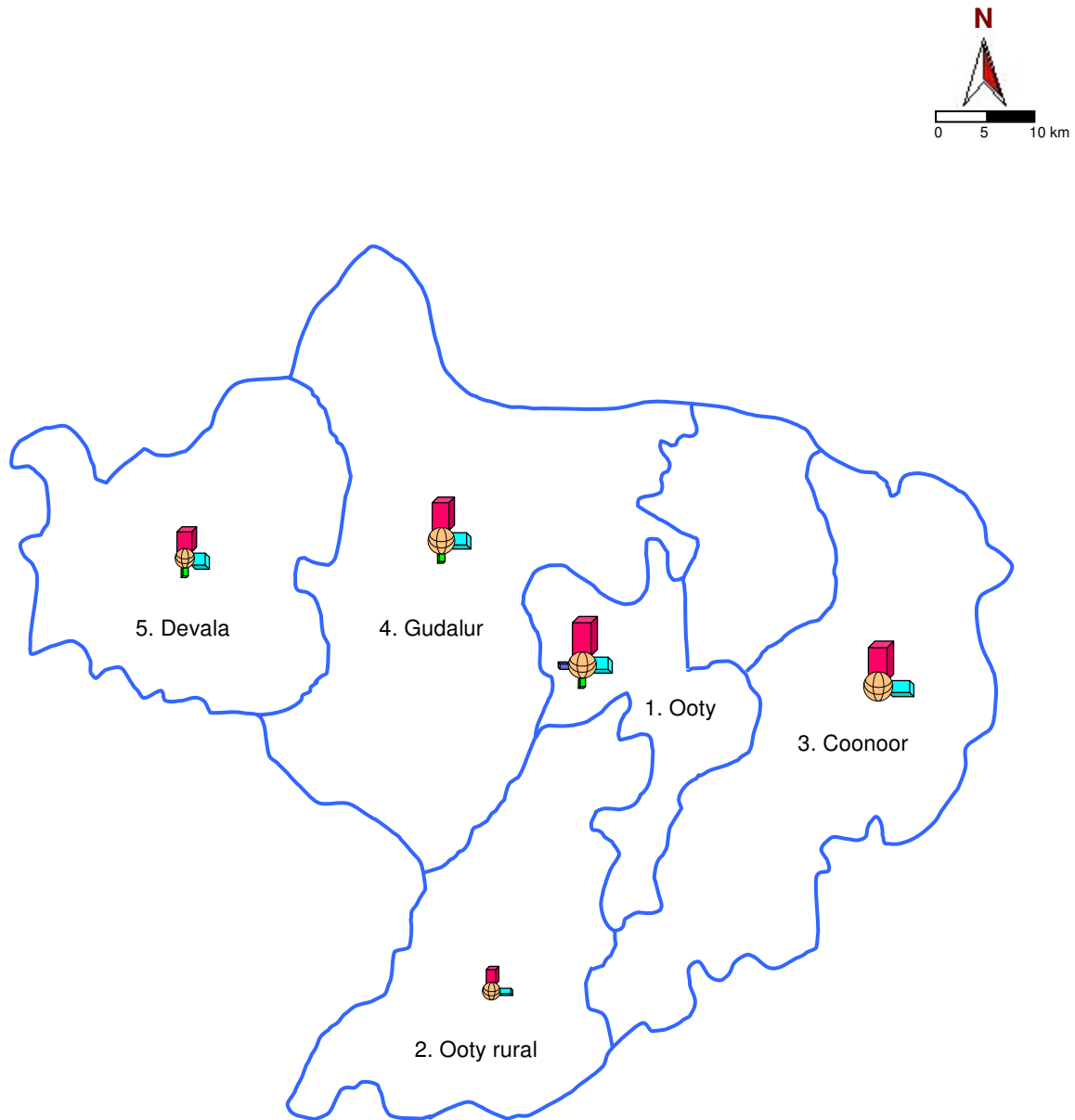


Figure 6-10. Spatial Spread of Property Offences in Erode District



Source: Erode District Crime Record Bureau

Figure 6.11. Property Offences in Nilgiris District

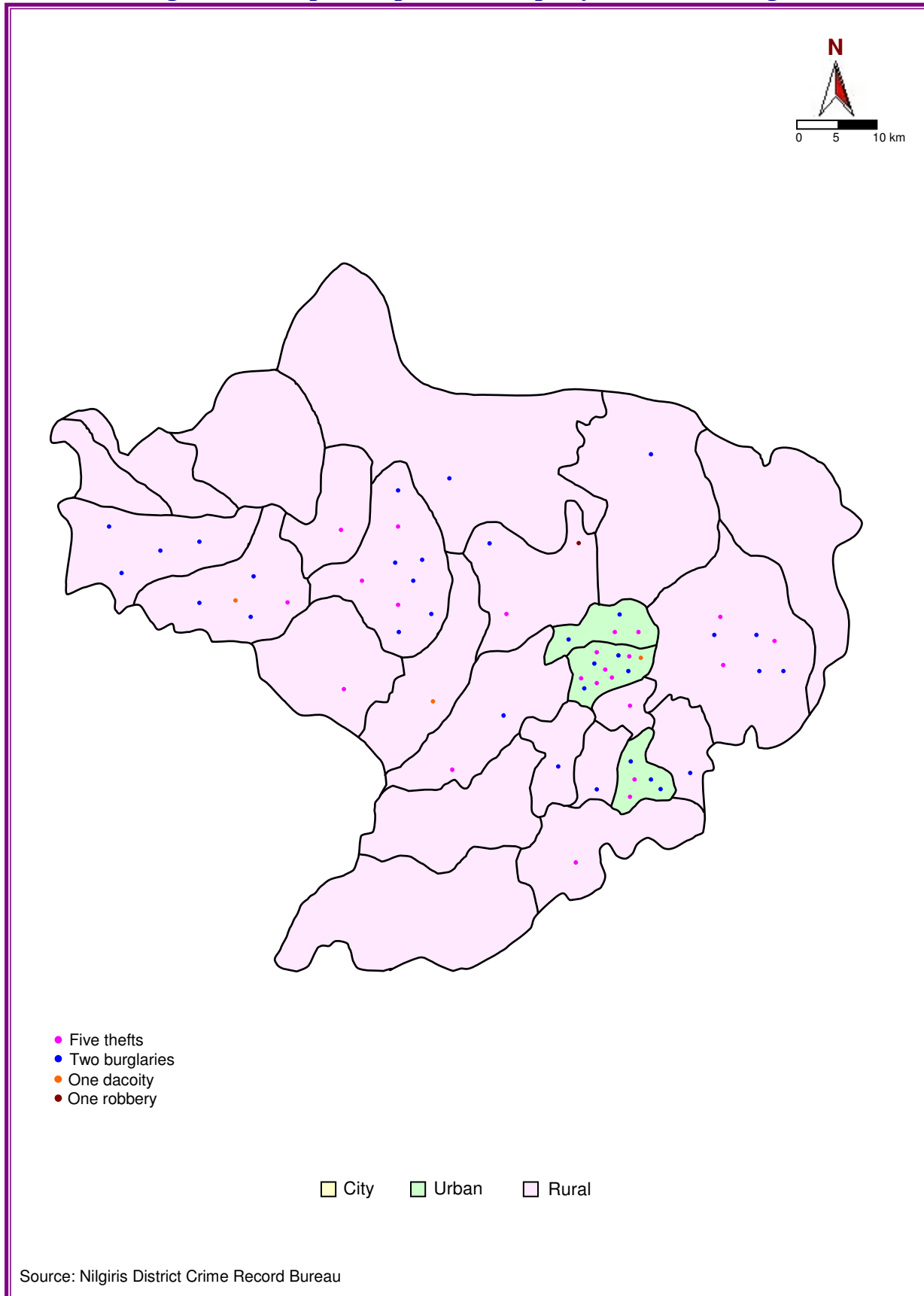


Types	
	Police Subdivisions

Source: Nilgiris District Crime Record Bureau

Types	Police Subdivisions				
	1	2	3	4	5
Theft	44	4	42	20	17
Burglary	19	7	21	23	15
Dacoity	1	-	1	1	1
Robbery	1	-	-	-	-
Total	65	11	63	44	33

Figure 6.12. Spatial Spread of Property Offences in Nilgiris District



APPENDIX 3

1. ■ Erode Town Sub Division

- 1.1. Erode Town
- 1.2. Erode South
- 1.3. Erode North
- 1.4. Karungalpalayam
- 1.5. Erode Taluk
- 1.6. Modakuruchi

2. ■ Perundurai Sub Division

- 2.1. Perundurai
- 2.2. Kanji Koil
- 2.3. Uthukuli
- 2.4. Chennimalai
- 2.5. Vellode
- 2.6. Arachalur
- 2.7. Kodumudi
- 2.8. Sivagiri
- 2.9. Malayampalayam

3. ■ Bhavani Sub Division

- 3.1. Bhavani
- 3.2. Appakoodal
- 3.3. Ammapet
- 3.4. Anthiyur
- 3.5. Vellithiruppur
- 3.6. Bargur
- 3.7. Chithode

4. ■ Gobi Sub Division

- 4.1. Gobi
- 4.2. Siruvalur
- 4.3. Kavandpady
- 4.4. Thingalur
- 4.5. Kunnathur
- 4.6. Nambiyur
- 4.7. Varapalayam
- 4.8. Kadathur

5. ■ Sathy Sub Division

- 5.1. Sathy
- 5.2. Thalavady
- 5.3. Hassanur
- 5.4. Banglapudur
- 5.5. Kadambur
- 5.6. Puliyampatti
- 5.7. Bhavanisagar

6. ■ Dharapuram Sub Division

- 6.1. Dharapuram
- 6.2. Alangiyam
- 6.3. Kundadam
- 6.4. Uthiyur
- 6.5. Kangayam
- 6.6. Vellakoil
- 6.7. Moolanur

APPENDIX 4

1. Ooty Sub Division

- 1.1. Ooty Town Central
- 1.2. Ooty Town West
- 1.3. Ooty Town East
- 1.4. Pudumandu

2. Ooty Rural Sub Division

- 2.1. Ooty Rural
- 2.2. Denaducombai
- 2.3. Manjoor
- 2.4. Emerald

3. Coonoor Sub Division

- 3.1. Coonoor Town
- 3.2. Upper Coonoor
- 3.3. Wellington
- 3.4. Aruvankadu
- 3.5. Kolacombai
- 3.7. Kotagiri
- 3.7. Sholurmattam

4. Gudalur Sub Division

- 4.1. Gudalur
- 4.2. Newhope
- 4.3. Masinagudi
- 4.4. Devarsholai
- 4.5. Naduvattam

5. Devala Sub Division

- 5.1. Devala
- 5.2. Cherambadi
- 5.3. Erumadu
- 5.4. Nellakottai
- 5.5. Ambalamoola

=====
M. Jayamala, Ph.D.
Centre for Women's Studies
PSGR Krishnammal College for Women
Peelamedu, Coimbatore - 641042
Tamilnadu, India
drjmala@gmail.com

